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AT THE INVITATION OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS (NASSP), A SPECIAL COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH HAS PREPARED A SYMPOSIUM OF PAPERS ON NEW DIRECTIONS IN THE ENGLISH SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM. ARTICLES ON IMPORTANT ISSUES AND DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH ARE--(1) "SIX MAJOR INFLUENCES ON THE SECONDARY ENGLISH CURRICULUM" BY JAMES R. SQUIRE, (2) "THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM--OUT OF THE PAST, INTO THE FUTURE" BY ROBERT A. BEANETT, (3) "THE 'NEW ENGLISH' ANEW" BY HAROLD B. ALLEN, (4) "LITERATURE IN THE REVITALIZED CURRICULUM" BY JAMES E. MILLER, JR., (5) "DEVELOPMENT IN SPEECH" BY WILLIAM WORK, (6) "READING--IN AND OUT OF THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM" BY MARGARET J. EARLY, (7) "DEVELOPMENTS IN COMPOSITION" BY GORDON WILSON AND ROBERT J. LACAMPAGNE, (8) "BOOK SELECTION AND CENSORSHIP" BY ROBERT F. HOGAN, (9) "ENGLISH PROGRAMS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED" BY RICHARD CORBIN, (10) "TEACHER PREPARATION" BY J. N. NOOK, (11) "NATIONAL ENGLISH PROJECTS AND CURRICULUM CHANGE" BY MICHAEL F. SHUGRUE, (12) "THE DARTMOUTH SEMINAR" BY ALBERT H. MARCKWARDT, (13) "INNOVATION AND RENOVATION IN ENGLISH TEACHING" BY FRANK E. ROSS, AND (14) "REFERENCES ON ENGLISH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS" BY JAMES R. SQUIRE. THESE PAPERS APPEAR IN THE "NASSP BULLETIN," VOL. 51, NO. 318, APRIL 1967. (DL)

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Number 318
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Second Thoughts: THE EDITOR COMMENTS

Kudos

In his foreword to this month's group of essays, Ellsworth Tompkins speaks for everyone in NASSP when he writes appreciatively of the many ways in which the National Council of Teachers of English has been of assistance to our Association, with this issue of the Bulletin being the most recent example. Although the editor is covered by that "everyone," he wishes to say how singularly grateful he is to James Squire, NCTE executive secretary, and his associates who planned and produced these papers on new directions in English instruction.

The response to the original invitation to write for the Bulletin was prompt and enthusiastic, and the magazine's requirements as to deadlines and space were precisely observed. But the ultimate satisfaction came from reviewing manuscripts where content, spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure neither needed nor permitted the tinkering that an editor takes for granted every manuscript must be subjected to. Perhaps this is not surprising when authors are teachers of English, but it is at least a pleasant reaffirmation that they do know what they are talking about!

Thank you, ladies and gentlemen.

* * *

Orders Accepted

Since this discussion of developments in the English field is likely to be of value to teachers, individually and by departments, and to other faculty members, a reminder is in order that additional copies of the Bulletin can be ordered from NASSP's publications office. Members of NASSP can obtain one or more copies of this or any other issue of the magazine for one dollar per copy. To nonmembers the price is two dollars for a single copy, with a 10 percent discount on 2 to 9 copies, and 20 percent for 10 or more. When a very large number of copies is desired, the editor will undertake to work out a price that will be advantageous to both buyer and seller.

(continued on page 122)

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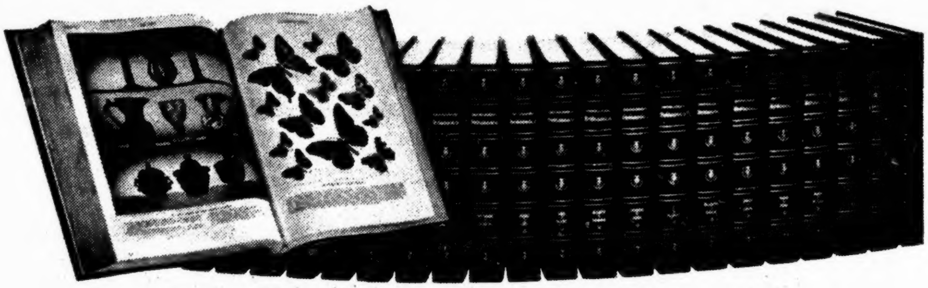

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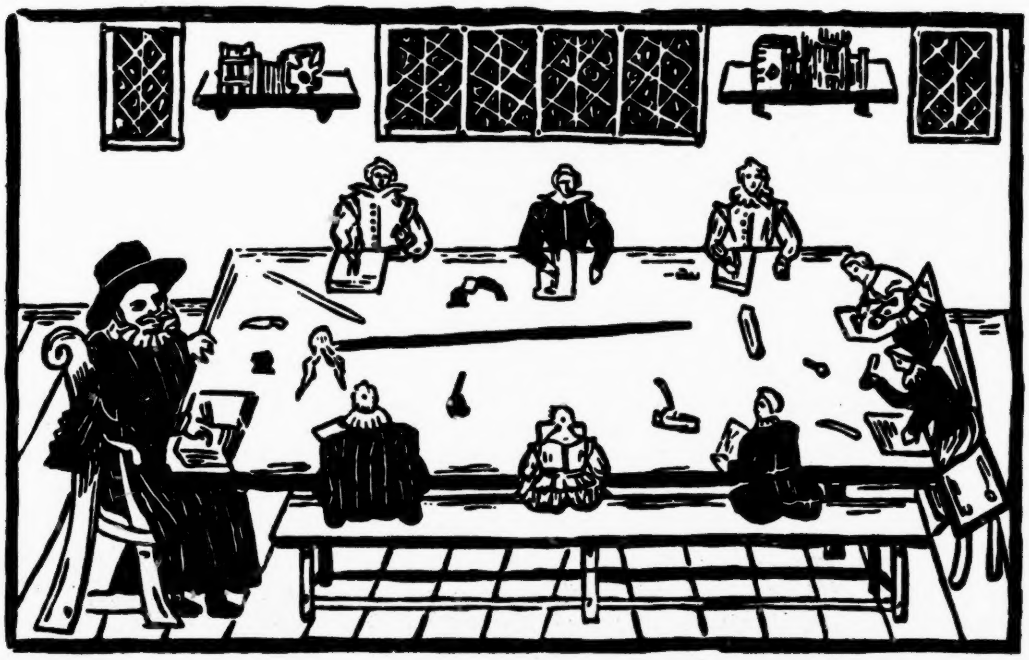
Shakespeare in the Role of Educationist

J. E. PARSONS



ON STAFF MEETINGS:
Misery acquaints a man with strange bedfellows.
(The Tempest)

ON MARKING LITERATURE PAPERS:
Here will be an old abusing of God's patience and the king's English.
(Merry Wives of Windsor)

ON SUBSTITUTE TEACHERS:
Drest in a little brief authority.
(Measure for Measure)

ON SELLING THE HOUSE AND MOVING TO AN APARTMENT:
Farewell! thou art too dear for my possessing.
(Sonnet 87)

ON SIGNING A CONTRACT:
Bait the hook well: this fish will bite.
(Much Ado About Nothing)

ON GUIDANCE COUNSELLORS:
Men
Can counsel and speak comfort to that grief
which they themselves not feel.
(Ibid.)

ON TEACHING LITERATURE:
Light seeking light doth light of light beguile.
(Love's Labour's Lost)

ON A LINGUISTICS CONFERENCE:
They have been at a great feast of languages, and stolen the scraps.
(Ibid.)

J. E. Parsons is a sixth-grade teacher at the Clinton Street School in Toronto, Canada.

ON DEGREE-HUNTING AT NIGHT:
It is the disease of not listening, the malady of not marking, that I am troubled withal.
(King Henry IV, Part II)

ON GOING OUT TO YARD DUTY:
Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood.
(King Henry V)

ON MARKING ENGLISH ESSAYS:
A load would sink a navy.
(King Henry VIII)

ON ASSEMBLIES IN THE AUDITORIUM:
The mutable, rank-scented many.
(Coriolanus)

ON AN INSPECTORAL VISITATION:
O, that a man might know
The end of this day's business, ere it come.
(Julius Caesar)

ON FIRE DRILL:
Stand not upon the order of your going,
But go at once.
(Macbeth)

ON THE NEW MATHEMATICS:
Oh! that way madness lies; let me shun that.
(King Lear)

ON BEING PASSED OVER FOR PROMOTION:
We cannot all be masters.
(Othello)

ON FILLING FORM T-1, APRIL 30:
I summon up remembrance of things past.
(Sonnet 30)

ON SATURDAY NIGHT:
I have yet
Room for six scotches more.
(Antony and Cleopatra)

ON FINDING A THUMB-TACK ON THE TEACHER'S CHAIR, APRIL FIRST:
Lo, here the gentle lark.
(Venus and Adonis)

ON MIMEOGRAPHED INSTRUCTIONS FROM THE PRINCIPAL:
Words, words, words.
(Hamlet)

ON THE TEACHER'S LOG BOOK:
The chronicle of wasted time.
(Sonnet 106)

ON THE INSPECTOR:
I dote on his very absence.
(Merchant of Venice)

ON OBJECTIVE EXAMINATIONS:
Answer me in one word.
(As You Like It)

ON A TEACHERS' CONVENTION:
Zounds! I was never so bethump'd with words.
(King John)

ON THE DAY AFTER LABOUR DAY:
So shaken as we are, so wan with care.
(Henry IV, part I)

ON THE MODERN POETS:
Neither rhyme nor reason.
(Comedy of Errors)

* * *

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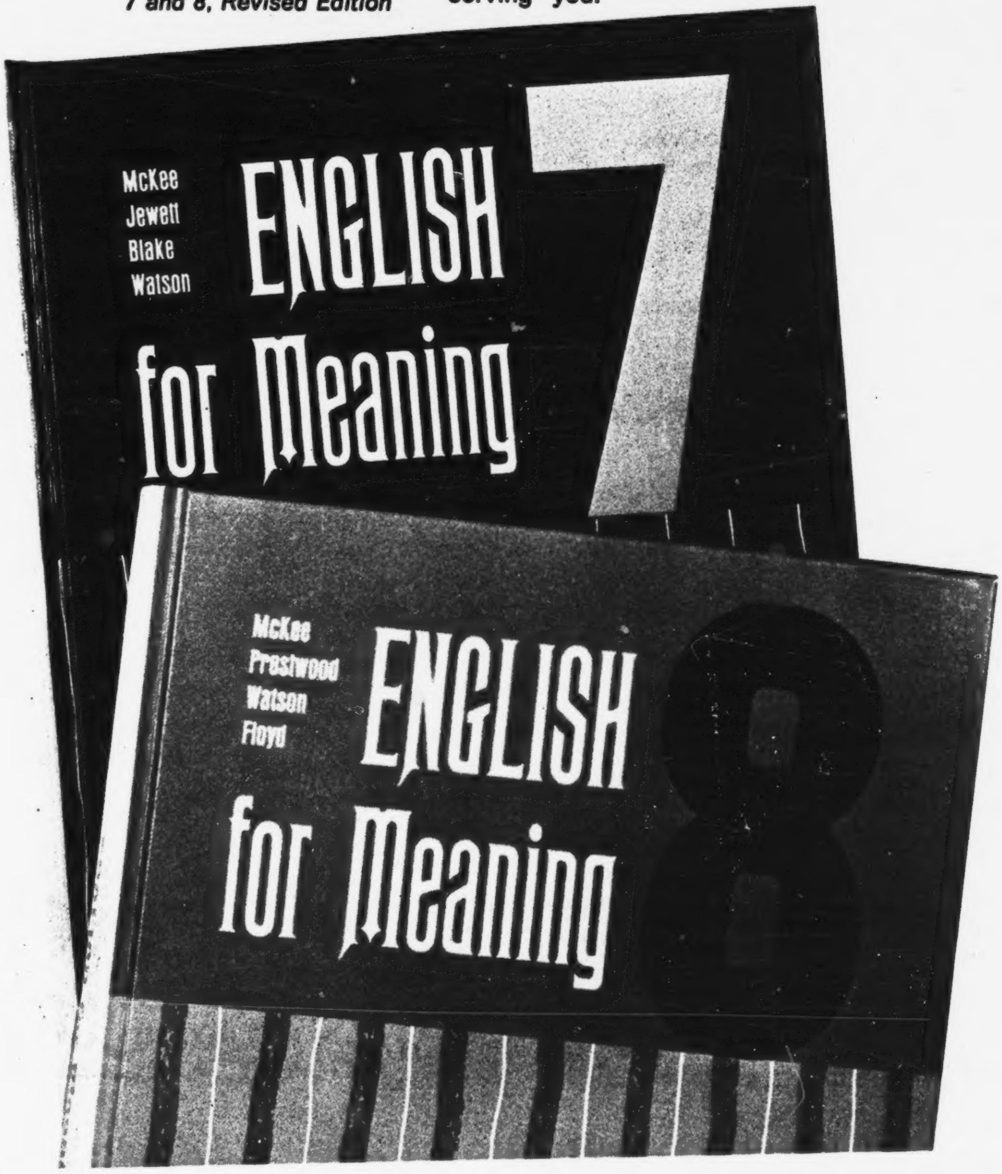
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A Symposium on

The English Curriculum in the Secondary School

A series of papers
prepared for the BULLETIN
by a
Special Committee
of
The National Council of Teachers of English

Foreword

For many years our Association and the National Council of Teachers of English have had a closeness of cooperation that has proved of benefit to members of each organization. Selected NASSP members have been consultants to Council projects dealing with the teaching of English in the secondary school and have also taken part in NCTE Annual Meetings. Conversely, Executive Secretary James R. Squire and his officers have made significant contributions to the programs of our Annual Conventions. All in all, it has been a profitable and much valued interchange.

Hence, we are indeed pleased to present this special issue of the BULLETIN on pervasive issues and developments in the teaching of English in secondary schools. Since the content of this issue has been broadly conceived, it ought to be of major concern to the English staff and to those who have a responsibility for organizing, administering, and coordinating instruction.

We are grateful to the distinguished authors who collaborated in preparing this issue of the BULLETIN.

Ellsworth Tompkins
Executive Secretary, NASSP

"Is there a 'new English' and, if so, what is its character?" The executive secretary of the National Council of Teachers of English provides part of the answer to his own questions by noting a series of conditions or movements that are stimulating a reappraisal of English instruction.

Six Major Influences on the Secondary English Curriculum

JAMES R. SQUIRE

THE quiet revolution in English teaching which has now been under way for several years is suddenly attracting national attention. Talk about "the new English" taking its place with the "new physics" and the "new mathematics" has become commonplace at professional meetings. Is there a "new English" and, if so, what is its character? The eleven articles in this symposium provide a partial answer. From their discussions, one can identify, at the very least, six major influences forcing the profession to reexamine current instructional practice.

1. *Major national projects in the teaching of English are providing impetus for curricular change.* Clearly the only truly effective change in a school's curriculum occurs through the consensus of teachers involved, but a sound, forward-looking consensus depends upon teachers who are fully informed of scholarly and professional developments. In recent years professors of English and English education have engaged in a large number of regional curriculum development projects, most of them supported by the U.S. Office of Education. The sample curricula

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James R. Squire, professor of English at the University of Illinois, is executive secretary of the National Council of Teachers of English.

for teaching English now emerging from these centers do not provide packaged programs, but suggest approaches which are pretested and which each faculty group may consider on its own. The new programs attempt to bring together the current insights of scholars and teachers and to offer secondary schools important new ways of bridging the gap between research and practice. These projects are discussed in a number of articles in this symposium, but most directly in the report by Michael Shugrue.

2. *New programs of preservice and in-service education are preparing teachers to utilize new ideas and approaches.* The determined effort of English teachers to reeducate themselves and their colleagues is most dramatically illustrated by the NDEA institute and teacher fellowship programs. Less obvious, but perhaps no less effective, are the vigorous in-service programs instituted by schools and states and precipitated in most cases by the appointment of new district and state supervisors and consultants in English. During the past three years, the number of state specialists in English and reading has grown at least five-fold; school districts have created new leadership positions for supervisors and high school English chairmen and have provided more time and more support for their activity. The effort to provide these new in-service programs is also paralleled by new and strong college programs for future teachers of English. J. N. Hook tells the story in his contribution to the symposium.

3. *New concepts and new ideas about the content of language, literature, composition, and the supporting skills are affecting much current activity in the teaching of English.* The past two decades have seen a new method of literary criticism (new emphases in linguistics) and, more recently, new concerns with rhetoric, oral and written. Until the past decade, however, only scattered attempts have been made to translate these important insights into programs for the schools. What some of these insights are and how they may affect secondary programs of the next decade are discussed in articles by Harold Allen, James E. Miller, Jr., Gordon Wilson, William Work, and Margaret Early.

4. *A new definition of English and of the relationship betwen content and skill is emerging from current curricular efforts.* Un-

like other subjects in the curriculum, except perhaps mathematics, English involves both content and skills. It is both a subject for study and a condition of school life. Efforts to overstress or underemphasize either content or skill must inevitably fail. Balance clearly is what is needed, a balance which concerns Robert Bennett in his article on current curriculum trends.

5. *Recommendations from an Anglo-American Conference at Dartmouth will provide recommendations with long-range implications.* Every so often in the profession a single meeting or conference so quickens the pulse of key leaders—providing a basic reappraisal of purpose and objectives—that it becomes seminal in its impact. Such a meeting was the Basic Issues Conference of 1958 and 1959, which paved the way for much of the new research, curriculum development, and teacher education affecting English today; such, too, was the Woods Hole Conference on the process of education which, through the important report of Jerome Bruner, has brought about a major upheaval in curriculum design. Such, too, may be the future impact of the Dartmouth Seminar on the teaching and learning of English, a month-long study conference of scholars and professional leaders in English teaching from the United Kingdom, Canada, and the United States. Although the final reports of the conference will not appear until late in 1967, some preliminary indication of the central ideas pervading the conference may be found in the articles in this symposium by James E. Miller and Albert Marckwardt. With its concern for the creative and intellectual development of the language potential of all boys and girls, the Dartmouth Seminar indicates that the search for strong English programs must continue.

6. *New awareness of the social implications of language study has awakened concern for the education of all boys and girls.* One of the startling findings of the National Study of High School English Programs was that America's high schools have become so overly concerned about English programs for the "upper tracks" that they are devoting neither adequate time nor sufficient efforts to programs for the less advantaged. Growing realization that many young people are denied educational and vocational opportunities because of linguistic disabilities has

spurred efforts to design new programs for such students. In writing about teaching English to disadvantaged students, Richard Corbin addresses himself to the most striking special programs now being developed, but the concern of scholars and teachers with present inadequacies for all pupils in the "lower tracks" is apparent also in Albert Marckwardt's report on the Dartmouth Seminar.

These then are six major concerns affecting secondary English programs today, reflected throughout the articles in this symposium. Reflected as well is the need for better teaching conditions—an adequate supply of textbooks and basic learning materials, classroom book collections, extensive library resources, reasonable teacher loads. The importance of providing young people with free access to good books is stressed in Robert Hogan's discussion of censorship problems, an acute problem in some school districts where sound procedures for selecting textbooks and library books have not been considered.

Quite evidently, the teaching of English today is in a state of transition. Good programs will be modified and strengthened by all of the influences discussed in these articles; weak programs will be substantially redesigned. Not in over three decades have ends and means been so vigorously debated. Out of the current reappraisals should emerge more effective and exciting programs for the next generation of students.

"The English curriculum is more than a set of skills necessary for success in other areas of endeavor. It is also more than a humanistic study." Bennett discusses the more important aspects of this enlarged contemporary view.

The English Curriculum:

Out of the Past, Into the Future

ROBERT A. BENNETT

THE English curriculum in any high school is a product of the past. It reflects the prior training and experience of the English teachers on the staff. The content of the curriculum is concerned with study of a language that has been evolving for hundreds of years. Effective use of language in speaking and writing dates back to the beginning of civilization. Through literature the student comes into contact with the great ideas that form the heritage of our Western culture. Textbooks and other instructional materials were written or prepared at least several years before the student comes into contact with them. And when these materials are based on research, it is research usually conducted with students widely separated by time and space from those sitting in the classroom today.

The goal of the English curriculum, on the other hand, is to prepare students to communicate more effectively and to respond more perceptively to language and literary experiences in the future. The past is significant, but the future is vital. To reach this goal, curriculum designs must be continually evolving and flexible. They must be built on accumulated knowledge which sets the most recent innovations and studies into perspective. But the thrust of the curriculum must be into the future, where it will

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Robert A. Bennett is specialist in language arts at the San Diego City Schools and director of the Commission on the English Curriculum.

find its meaning in the lives of people entering the twenty-first century.

Not only this time factor, but also traditional fragmentation of the subject of English into its component parts, may prevent the curriculum designer from gaining a holistic view of his task. A view of the "one world" of English is essential. To gain this view, we will shun the now outdated Gemini capsule and climb aboard a yet untried, but soon to be superseded, Apollo craft. Three, two, one . . . . .

As Viewed From Afar

Above the day-to-day complexities of teaching, we might see the world of English as a sphere complete with the grid marks of longitude and latitude. Marked out on the lines of longitude (beginning not at Greenwich, England, but further east in a land where the language and literature of Western civilization first appeared) is the study of English as a humanity. Here we see the great creations of man: his language and his literature.

Language is, after all, the greatest of the humanities. It is the invention of man that sets him apart from all other forms of life. Every major advance in the history of civilization has been made possible only because man has created a reliable system of communication. But because language was invented by man to represent phenomena he observes in his universe and because his universe is so infinitely intricate, the language man created to represent this universe is equally complex. The mastery of language is not the task of the primary grades, nor of the elementary school, nor of the secondary school or college. Mastery of language is, rather, a lifelong pursuit.

Based on his language is man's second great creation, the literature he has written. No study of the humanities is complete without a close reading of the great ideas of Western civilization and the imaginative reflections of experience that come to us through our literary heritage. It is the power of literature to capture experience and hold it in suspension for examination from many viewpoints that provides its meaning in the lives of readers of all ages.

So far we have circled the globe once, examining English as a humanity marked out on the lines of longitude. Now let us go into a polar orbit as we view the parallel lines of latitude, English as a tool subject.

North of the equator we see all the skills needed in *receiving* ideas effectively: reading, listening, and perhaps even viewing. The skill of perceiving graphemic distinctions and translating them into meaningful phonemic combinations is certainly a task of the primary grades. But reading, we all know, is much more than the grapheme-to-phoneme translation process; it is the process of discovering and reacting to significant elements of meaning in what is read. This is a developmental task that must be achieved not once and for all, but at every stage of sophistication from first grade through graduate school and beyond. As we get near the Pole, the climate gets frigid and so do many teachers when they discuss listening and viewing. We have left, they claim, the world of English. But we are still dealing with an aspect of language learning, be it the oral language interpreted through listening or the visual or "silent language" of gestures and images which frequently accompany the spoken word. The relevance of the art of viewing to the world of English has never been more clearly or more forcefully presented than in the new NCTE volume, *The Motion Picture and the Teaching of English.*[1]

South of the equator the parallel lines of latitude reveal the skills of *expressing* ideas through speaking and writing. Again the development of these skills is extremely important in the early years of school and continues its importance, but in a different relationship to the content lines of longitude, as we progress through the grades to the college level. The development of fluency in oral language appears first, followed by early attempts at writing. Later the student learns to modify both his oral and written language through accepted principles of correctness and rhetorical principles of effectiveness to achieve his self-determined communication purpose or objective. Thus he learns to speak and write so that he gets what he wants. The teacher maintains the role of the guide, suggesting to the student ways of more effectively achieving his goal, and more importantly, leading him to set more challenging goals for himself that will enable him to achieve greater self-realization through mastery of the power of language.

The world of English maintains its rhythm in its universe. Each day there is a complete rotation as each part of the world comes in for a share of attention. As it revolves and the relative position of its axis changes, the lines of longitude and latitude are viewed from different points and receive different emphases. Once a year the world of English completes a revolution of its orbit, and, as in a spiral curriculum, the varying emphases are revisited each year on higher levels of sophistication.

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[1] Marion C. Sheridan *et al., The Motion Picture and the Teaching of English.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965.

A Unifying Principle

To forge out of the past a curriculum for the future is no easy task. One attempt, *Freedom and Discipline in English* by the Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board, provides many valuable insights.[2] This commission viewed English as composed of three major areas of study—language, literature, and composition. The California Association of Teachers of English, in developing guidelines for an English curriculum framework for California, searched for a principle to unify these three divisions of the subject. The following statement is quoted from these guidelines:

> The divisions of the discipline—language, composition, and literature—are interrelated in a way that sustains the unity. Language includes the essential structures and varieties of English. Composition concerns the disciplined and patterned creation of forms of thought in language. Literature emphasizes the most memorable forms of composition, the imaginative ordering of values in the medium of language.
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> In school, the study of language, of grammar, spelling and punctuation, and word usage, leads to the study of composition. Composition in turn is the effective use of language in its written and spoken forms for both utilitarian and imaginative purposes. Literature includes the memorable forms of composition. From the simplest unit of sound through word, sentence, paragraph, to whole composition or complete work, meaning finds form and significance in language. It may be conveyed directly or indirectly, by rational argument or by visionary embodiment. Recognition of its recurrent forms and significances extends and deepens the range of human understanding.

Recognizing that it is the teacher's perception of the discipline that will determine the content of the curriculum, several individuals have also dedicated themselves to the task of defining English. In his analysis, Archibald MacLeish states that "teachers of English have better things to do than instruct the young in the composition of simple declarative sentences."[3] He then postulates that "if 'English' isn't the teaching of the writing of the language, it may well be the teaching of the reading of the language—the reading of what has already been written that deserves to be read again."

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[2] Commission on English. *Freedom and Discipline in English*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1965.

[3] Archibald MacLeish. "What Is English?" *Saturday Review* 44:12-14; December 9, 1961.

In defining reading, MacLeish proceeds from recognition of words and structure and explication of the text to reading "what the words in their combination and their structure, their sounds and their significance, are *about.*" Here this definition is in difficulty for, as MacLeish puts it, "The substance of the literature of our tongue is the whole substance of human experience as that experience has presented itself to the mind, the imagination, and the most sensitive of the users of that tongue. Nothing is foreign to it. Nothing is excluded." His final conclusion is, therefore, that English "is something more than the teaching of the reading of words as words but something less also, surely less, than the teaching of the private life the words come out of, or the public life toward which they look. 'English' always stands with a foot in the text and a foot in the world, and what it undertakes to teach is neither the one nor the other but the relation between them."

Structural Reform

H. A. Gleason, in his seminal article, "What Is English?" predicted a reforming of the internal structure of English around three headings: the understanding of language, the manipulation of language, and the appreciation of language.[4]

In his view, "the understanding of language" is much broader than the study of grammar in most present curricula. For example, he believes that English teaching "must take cognizance of the similarities and differences and the continual interplay between the spoken and written language. Students must understand the difference in purpose and functioning between the two. This contrast must be a central theme in the new language curriculum."

He goes on to emphasize the interrelationships among the three sections he has proposed as he describes the first emphasis, the use of language. "We should teach composition and literature so that people are helped through them to understand language and its operation. Language is used to communicate. We can only understand its function by examining it at work communicating and by experimenting with communicating through it ourselves. Language provides a framework within which meaning, both denotative and connotative, can be conveyed. We understand this function thoroughly only as we try seriously to extract that meaning from passages, or to express fully and succinctly such meaning in language."

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[4] H. A. Gleason, Jr. "What Is English?" *College Composition and Communication* 13:1-10; October 1962.

In his second emphasis, the manipulation of language, Gleason points out that to the child the process of learning a new medium of language, writing, is very similar to the learning of a new language. Here English teachers can learn from the experience of teachers of foreign languages that "productive and receptive control must go hand in hand." This special relationship must be preserved not only in the teaching of reading and writing in the elementary grades but also in the literature and composition programs of the secondary school.

In his third emphasis, the appreciation of language, Gleason goes beyond the teaching of literature. He also includes the appreciation of language as structure. Thus he comes full circle, and although the three divisions he proposed at first sounded similar to the language, literature, and composition of the tripartite curriculum, he has provided us with a key for a closer drawing together of the components of the curriculum with language as its integrating center.

Relating New Work to Actuality

The task of the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English is to relate emerging concepts of curriculum theory, recent discoveries about the language learning of students, new packages of curriculum programs developed by universities and colleges under U.S. Office of Education sponsorship, and the latest scholarship in the field of English to the present background and experiences of classroom teachers of English and to the needs of students living in the society of tomorrow. This is a humbling assignment. It can only be achieved through a maximum of effort and a variety of approaches. The agenda of the Commission's meetings last November included such diverse items as the review of new English curriculum guides submitted by schools throughout the country, plans for an in-service education series to be video taped, discussion of high school courses in the humanities, study of high school reading instruction, programs for the disadvantaged, liaison with English curriculum committees from other national organizations, and the influence of testing on the curriculum.

Two bulletins were published by the Commission in 1966. One is a summary of the work of 25 curriculum study centers funded by the Program in English of USOE.[5] It is the first in a series of guides designed to help local school districts in using effectively the mass of new materials being prepared by college and university departments of English for high school programs. A workshop on this topic for local school district English curriculum leaders is already being planned for November 1968 in Milwaukee, prior to the 58th annual convention of the National Council of Teachers of English.

In the second publication, *Ends and Issues,* the Commission attempts to identify key unresolved disputes about purpose and program in the English curriculum.[6] As it does so, it also delineates what it believes are generally agreed upon principles which should serve as a professional base for intelligent participation among curriculum planners in resolving these issues at the local district level. Most of the issues are grouped around five of the content areas: the study of language, composition, literature, speaking and writing, and the popular culture. Other concerns include differentiation in general education, new developments in instructional materials, and innovations in instructional organization. The following quotations and paraphrases from this report reflect its point of view:

> *Language.* The Commission supports a broad view of language instruction including study of its nature, structure, history, and power. To some advocates of language study, the utilitarian argument is too narrow and may lead to too much attention to such lesser concerns as telephone manners, the form of thank-you notes, and advice on how to run a club meeting. Language study that is useful only for serving the marketplace, or even for serving social and aesthetic ends, will differ substantially from language study which focuses on man's curiosities about that which makes him human.
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> *Composition.* The writing of letters, of reports, of explanations, or of opinions on topics drawn largely from the social studies and more

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[5] Robert A. Bennett (editor). *Summary Progress Report of English Curriculum Study and Demonstration Centers.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

[6] Commission on the English Curriculum. *Ends and Issues.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

recently the sciences, and the recording of personal experience have formed a large part of the composition program. Such writing gives students an opportunity to test their powers of clarity, organization, and self-expression. Such writing gives teachers an opportunity to discover the effectiveness of their teaching of many subjects and many skills. And it furnishes insights into the students themselves. However, thoughtful observers have recently begun to question this approach, arguing that a program in composition ought to be firmly rooted in the unity of the discipline of English. Language, composition, and literature, taken in combination, should and can be used to illuminate and strengthen one another. Literature, conceived as the most artistic form of composition, should surely aid the composing process, heightening powers of observation, displaying for the young writer patterns of organization and structure, and strengthening his sensory perceptions. Taken with the study of language, literary analysis reveals the many resources of the language—imagery, vocabulary, and syntax.

Literature. While larger and larger numbers of graduates do leave high school as avid readers of literature, too many still do not. In fact, some adult Americans who presumably could pass as educated rarely, if ever, read a book of any kind after they escape our tutelage. Why this should be is what concerns the profession today. Although teachers are assuming new and vigorous responsibility for helping learners at every level engage in rewarding literary experiences, many issues still exist. Their refinement and resolution will require the best efforts of all.

Speaking and Listening. Some aspects of the present scene would seem to support renewed concern for the role of speaking and listening in the English curriculum. Increased understanding of the impact of the popular culture upon the student, for example, is accompanied by new insights into oral language development. Furthermore, the pedagogical inferences being drawn from a speech-based linguistic science are only now beginning to be formalized for school testing and promise to alter most profoundly our teaching of language in general. New insights into the role of rhetoric promise to illuminate and possibly integrate the teaching of written and oral composition.

The Popular Culture. The Commission recognizes that appreciation of the literary experience is much broader than understanding what is read. Too often unrecognized is the aim of helping students develop an understanding of the techniques and artistry of the newer media, so that they will not only appreciate the best product of these media but will develop finer critical judgment in all the arts. Despite the growth of a literature of criticism and the development of an ever-widening public appreciation for the film as an art form, few teachers will have had any opportunity to study the best of its products. In consequence, many teachers may feel inhibited, not knowing how to teach what they may truly feel they ought to teach.

General Education. In differentiation of the curriculum to meet the objectives of general education for all students, the Commission recognizes that students can work toward the same goals without necessarily utilizing the same content. Understandings, values, and skills toward which all students can make some degree of progress may be reached through the use of different subject matter for different students. For example, not every student in general education English classes must read the same literary pieces. Not only subject matter but classroom experiences may differ. Taking notes on a lecture may be an experience appropriate to some students but not to others. Enacting scenes from a play may be an invigorating experience in one class, a catastrophe in another. Nor can all students attain specified objectives to the same degree of proficiency. It is clear, for example, that all students will not attain the same level of reading ability during twelve years of schooling. A reading standard attainable by all would have to be set too low to challenge most students, but improving everyone's ability to read can be a common goal.

Instructional Materials and Innovations. No local choice has more influence on instruction in English than has the selection of instructional materials. Probably at no other time in the history of education has more ingenuity been exercised in developing instructional materials than is being shown today. Variety in kind is matched by an abundance coming in part from improvements in the mass media—television, transparency projection, and copying machines, to name a few. Both variety and abundance can lead to confusion. Faced with myriad choices for organizing the instructional program in English, those concerned with the teaching of English must continually inform themselves of curriculum innovations. To become informed requires a willingness to study and to try out new ideas, an ability to distinguish between change that produces progress and change merely for its own sake, and a knowledge of old and new procedures for evaluating innovations.

The English curriculum is more than a set of skills necessary for success in other areas of endeavor. It is also more than a humanistic study. The discipline of English is both skills and humanistic study. Together they provide the student with the competence and the awareness without which he cannot achieve his potential. While keeping clearly in mind the unity of English, teachers in planning the curriculum must analyze each phase of the program for its contribution to the whole. The goals of the curriculum will only be achieved if each of the parts is taught individually in a developmental sequence meaningful to the student and at the same time is taught in such a way that all the parts reinforce and support each other.

To develop this curriculum, teachers must build on their preparation in the discipline of English and their teaching experiences. By sharing their present knowledge and relating it to their continuing inquiry into new content and methods in English and recent research in curriculum and learning theory, teachers in each local district will be able to build an effective program for the students in their classrooms. From the heritage of the past and the scholarship of today, the English curriculum must be developed to meet the requirements of the citizens of tomorrow.

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"The unhappy fact is that the discipline of English . . . has not up to now dealt very well with the language. . . . It is not generally apprehended that the language is the only unifying element in the complex and diverse discipline of English."

The "New English" Anew

HAROLD B. ALLEN

AT A recent conference an enthusiastic speaker said, "The impact of the 'new English' upon the schools will be so great as to make that of the 'new math' look like the splash of a raindrop in a lake." This bit of exaggeration probably belongs in the great American tradition of extravagant humor. But though the stories of the frontiersman's adventures with the fabulous ring-tailed roarer and the guyascutus had little basis in reality, perhaps this particular hyperbole cannot be absolutely dismissed.

For several years school administrators, supervisors, and curriculum specialists have been increasingly aware, sometimes directly, sometimes by allusion only, of rumblings and grumblings in the field of English and language arts. In print and in speech they have heard the term "new English" as the undefined symbol of what was to solve the problems of teaching English and marvelously produce some kind of pedagogical utopia.

Let's look at this notion.

First, we must recognize that some of the people who have been using this expression, the "new English," have applied it to several different aspects and operations. I have heard it applied to the teaching of English sound patterns—phonemics—in the elementary grades, to the teaching of relativism in usage,

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and to the replacement of the familiar "noun" by "Class One word." This wide range of applications is reminiscent of the fable of the blind men feeling different parts of an elephant and characterizing the whole in terms of, variously, the tail, the trunk, and the body. But persons using "new English" in this way are not employing a synecdoche. To them the single gimmick is the whole. It *is* the new English. Any such limited view is unfortunate, for it reflects a quite inadequate and superficial comprehension of the discipline of English.

The one common denominator in these various referents of the "new English" is the English language. Here is where we can, then, begin to look for an understanding of what is now going on in the English profession. At this point I want to suggest a definition of English as a foundation for what follows. In recent years a rather commonly found definition of English offers a tripartite division into language, literature, and composition, as if the subject were a kind of federation of three coordinate but disparate entities. The Basic Issues Conference eight years ago so defined the teaching of English, and the notion has had general, though not entirely enthusiastic, acceptance.[1]

A Simple Definition

I offer this simple definition: *English is the study of the English language and of its use as a medium of communication.* The definition may be amplified by recognizing that the study of the language calls for study of the language as system per se and as a system having various social, spatial, and temporal correlations. It may also be amplified by recognizing that the use of the language includes both outgoing and incoming oral and written communication, ranging from the simplest and most informal utterances to the most distinguished and long-lasting examples of belles lettres—from "It's cold" to *Hamlet*. Implicit, of course, is awareness that there is simply no sharp line of demarcation between what is literature and what is not quite literature. We have a range or a continuum, not a two-valued split.

Clearly the one thing that unifies the field of English is the language. The teacher of English literature is a teacher of English because the literature is written in the English language.

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[1] *The Basic Issues in the Teaching of English*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1959.

The teacher of composition is a teacher of English because he teaches how to write in the English language, not in French or Arabic or Korean. The teacher of reading—whether he so classifies himself or not—is a teacher of English because he teaches how to read in the English language, and not in some other language. The teacher of spelling is a teacher of English because he teaches how to spell in the English language. The teacher of speech is a teacher of English because he is teaching how to speak effectively in the English language, and not in some other tongue.

If I seem to labor this point, I do so deliberately. Simple and obvious as it is, it is not generally apprehended that the language is the only unifying element in the complex and diverse discipline of English, and, further, that this unifying element, this core or foundation, is what identifies elementary teachers as teachers of English just as it identifies speech teachers as teachers of English.

But the English language has been around for some time. What is new about the "new English"? The unhappy fact is that the discipline of English, in school and college, has not up to now dealt very well with the language. This fact can be made to stand out by a quick reference to how the language has been treated in the "old" English.

The "Old" English

For the past half century, attention to the language itself has been almost exclusively in the form of insistence upon a set of grammatical rules intended as guides to social behavior. These rules of language etiquette, because they historically were largely derived from statements about a quite different kind of language, Greek, often had little relationship to the actual practice of cultivated speakers and writers of English. As a result, if a subservient student set himself to following the rules in actual conversation or composition, he produced language behavior likely to be conspicuously deviant. "He talks like an English teacher" has not been a recommendation likely to open many doors.

These grammatical rules not only failed to relate closely to the English language but also failed to provide any systematic and coherent view of any language, English or Greek. The rules were offered in unrelated fragments, year after year after year in maddeningly frustrating "grammar review," with never the slightest hint of the vast interrelated web of patterns in the living language. Neither students nor teachers had any concept of the language as a complex whole, of the nature of the language and of its actual operation as a system.

In the "old" English, reading has been taught as if the child did not already control the sound system and a large vocabulary. By a curious reversal of natural procedure, stress was put upon the "sound values" of a letter instead of upon the written values of a sound. In later stages of reading, attention was put upon eye span instead of upon the normal structural divisions in English syntax. And spelling has been taught in terms of "spelling demons" in some presumed order of difficulty but without recognition of the many regular correspondences between sound and symbol patterns.

The "new English," taken in its entire scope, offers a dramatic and happy contrast to this desiccated approach to our language. Now the language is not something from which stray and more or less accurate bits of information are drawn at intervals. It becomes, in its various aspects, the actual central subject matter, integrally related to practice in speaking and writing and to the study of literature.

The school embracing the total concept of the new English has as content not only the inner system of the language but also the correlations of the system with the situations in which it is used. This content is then carefully presented in a spiral sequence that provides sequential deepening and widening grade after grade.

Varied Views of Grammar

Any description of the inner content of a language, of the system itself, is what is known as a grammar. The rapidly increasing tempo of research in the scientific study of language, in linguistics, now makes several grammars available to the schools. Although sometimes enthusiastic proponents make exclusive claims for some one grammar, a pragmatic view suggests that each grammar has something valuable to offer to the teacher and that no one grammar has its private pipeline to God's truth.

Traditional school grammar, although it is unrealistic in its dependence upon the categories of Latin and Greek grammar and in its nondescriptive and prescriptive character, still has rich associations with the past. The teacher should be familiar with it as a whole if only to be able to relate it to one or more of the modern grammars.

The historical-comparative grammar of the nineteenth century, flowering in the twentieth century in eight volumes of Jespersen, is extraordinarily ample in its inventory of grammatical features and forms and uses; and an additional contribution is its great emphasis upon speech as the first manifestation of the language system.

Structural grammar, which dominated linguistic thinking for the thirty years after Leonard Bloomfield's book, *Language,* appeared in 1933, provides the clear concept of the phoneme, the identification of the morpheme and its classes, the noncontroversial classification of parts of speech in terms of shape and position, the identification of the five structures which can interlock to form the most complex possible English sentence, and the theory of immediate constituents with its open door to clear analysis of a given sentence.

Tagmemic grammar, developed by Kenneth Pike at the University of Michigan, and its related development, the sectoral analysis grammar of Robert Allen of Teachers College, Columbia University, give insight into the relations between one structural layer and another. The stratificational grammar of Sydney Lamb of Yale University not only presents a theory of layer relationships but is also the first attempt to deal systematically with the extraordinarily complex area of word meaning.

In contrast with all these is the grammar now exciting greatest attention, that kind of generative grammar called transformational, first described in Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* in 1957. Unlike previous grammars with their concern with the study of actual sentences, transformational grammar offers a theory that, presented in a sequence of rigorously applied rules, accounts for all possible sentences in the language.

Regional Differences

But the "new English" is more than grammar. It calls for attention to the great variety of language forms found in different regions and localities, from the contrast between British and American English to that between the Bronx and Morningside Heights in New York City. It calls for attention also to the vertical range of variation among different socio-economic groups, and hence deals with the actual material from which sound standards of spoken and written usage may be derived. Sometimes this material is actually collectible by the pupils themselves as they observe the language in the human laboratory around them.

Because the English language—both its system and the vocabulary it has developed—has a past, the history of the language in England and America is also part of the content of the new English. Inevitably there follows the history of attempts to record it, so the background of linguistic study and the history of the English dictionary also become content. The history of the dictionary is itself closely tied with the subject of historical semantics, or the changes in the meanings pointed to by words, and that, too, is part of the new English.

Implicit in acceptance of this modern orientation to the language is application of linguistic knowledge both to the teaching of reading, beginning and advanced, and to the teaching of spelling. Likewise implicit is close correlation between teaching composition and teaching speech, or oral English, especially in terms of basic similarities between them in receiving and in giving communication, as well as the superficial contrasts that heretofore have been considered as basic and hence have served as the dividing wedge between speech and English.

The thoroughgoing acceptance of the new English could make a quite sizeable splash even if it cannot easily be compared with the new mathematics. The student who completes twelve years in schools teaching the new English will have acquired a sound knowledge of his language and of himself as a language-using being. He will have developed some sensitivity to its wide range of uses in a variety of communication situations, with an understanding of the role of language in public affairs. Hence, he will have a basis for intelligent choice with respect to his use of various language forms. Evidence now available suggests at least that he will have learned in less time how to read and more readily how to read mature prose and poetry. In all his functions involving language, in short, he will be informed, not naive.

Making Headway

Although thoroughgoing acceptance of the new English must await availability of materials and full preparation of the teacher, progress toward that time is accelerating. That progress will be facilitated if it has the support and encouragement of sympathetic and knowledgeable administrators and supervisors. A school system can begin where it can begin—where, in short, the need is greatest and the personnel is ready. Philadelphia, for example, has begun with reading because of the critical situation with the disadvantaged child. Westport, Connecticut, began with grammar in the junior and senior high schools because of the concern of a department chairman. Portland, Oregon, began with wider language content in the senior high school because of needs pointed out by a major curriculum study. Hopkins, Minnesota, has been able to begin on an even wider front because of the linguistic preparation of its high school staff and the experimental availability of the materials from the Minnesota Project English center.

Within a few months language-oriented materials will be procurable not only from the Minnesota Project English center but also from those at the University of Nebraska and the University of Oregon. Several textbook publishers already have textbooks dealing with structural or transformational grammar, and one publisher has produced a twelfth-grade text that treats much of the language content already identified in this article. Supporting materials in video tape and kinescope have recently appeared and others are in preparation.

What is actually more important at this moment than the classroom materials is the preparation of the teacher. The hailing of a single aspect of the new English as a panacea is the act of a teacher who sees tree diagramming or immediate constituent analysis as the whole of the new English and who has not gained an adequate knowledge of the language. In this kind of situation lies danger, for the teacher who tries a gimmick and fails will be tempted to condemn the new English out of hand—without ever really understanding it.

Some measure of preparation is being provided a minority through the NDEA summer institutes and various workshops, but a longer period of study and in-service preparation is really needed if the teacher is to have the background necessary for dealing with the English language in a modern school. Future teachers of English will be less handicapped as stiffer requirements for certification are adopted throughout the country. Every indication is that more and more states will soon require work in the history and structure of the language, especially of American English.[2]

In the meantime, however, it is clear that the new English is on its way to becoming a reality. Although materials are still largely in preparation and teachers are still largely to be trained, the complete new English is more likely to be a powerful moving current than a splash in still water.

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[2] After writing this article I received a copy of Albert H. Marckwardt's *Linguistics and the Teaching of English,* recently published by the Indiana University Press, Bloomington. Any reader concerned with the subject of this paper and wishing more information about the problems involved is strongly urged to turn to Professor Marckwardt's cogent treatment.

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> *"Language is filled with more mystery than sense, more caprice than logic, more surprise and defiance than compliance and capitulation . . . language is the most compelling manifestation we have of our humanness."*

Literature in the Revitalized Curriculum

JAMES E. MILLER, JR.

THE place and role of literature in contemporary education is best understood in the context of a simplified view of the recent history of American education. By taking a sweeping and somewhat arbitrary view of the last 100 years or so, we can discern four stages in American educational history. These four stages may be loosely labelled the Authoritarian, the Progressive, the Academic, and the Humanitarian.

The first of these stages, the Authoritarian, we identify with the arid classicism and rote learning of the nineteenth century; the second, the Progressive, with John Deweyism (something different from the real Dewey), indiscriminate permissiveness, and social adjustment, all running deep into the twentieth century. In more recent times, we have been witness to a revolution in our schools which we may, for convenience, date from Russia's Sputnik launching in 1957, and which I have arbitrarily designated Academic. In this stage we have seen the introduction of the new math, the new physics, and the new English in our schools, together with emphasis on intellectual grouping or tracking to identify and challenge the intellectually gifted—all rather much under the supervision of the academic rather than the education establishment, and all somewhat a reaction to the

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academically thin curricula of the schools awash in the back eddies of extremist progressivism.

We are now, in my view, on the threshold of the fourth stage, which I call the Humanitarian. If we pause for a moment and glance backward, we note that the stages I have described are not clearly defined historical periods but merely the slow swinging of a pendulum between two poles of emphasis which may be variously described as substance and psychology, subject matter and student, or intellectuality and society. The recent emphasis on the academic disciplines was, as I have suggested, brought to a focus and accelerated by Russia's Sputnik in 1957. Even before this date, the Supreme Court (in 1954) handed down its decision on racial integration of the schools. In some ways this launching of a social revolution, though slower felt, had more profound consequences than the Sputnik launching. And as this social revolution has gained momentum in the 1960's, it has definitely affected—and will certainly affect more deeply in the future—the trend of the 1950's toward academic emphasis (or, as some would charge, academic overemphasis) in the schools.

If we talk about trends or "new developments" in English, it is important to keep this historical context in mind. And though I have introduced the metaphor of the pendulum, I do not want to suggest that the schools have been simply moving back and forth between two extremes of educational theory. On the contrary, I think that there has been change and advance in educational theory, that the Academic stage of the 1950's is fundamentally different from the Authoritarian stage of the earlier time, and the new stage we confront now—the Humanitarian—is and will continue to be radically different from the Progressive stage before it. Perhaps it would be best to substitute the metaphor of the spiral in place of the pendulum, to suggest that successive stages veer away and return—but the return is never back but forward.

To talk about literature in the contemporary curriculum is to talk about a subject and a program both of which are in a state of flux. As I have indicated, there are at this moment revolutions and counterrevolutions in progress in the curricula and there are basic reconsiderations under way of the nature of language and literature and the ways they relate to learning. Before turning specifically to the new look of literature in the curriculum, I need to describe briefly a new way of looking at language and literature.

A New Way of Looking

The old way of looking at language was to consider it as a logical system originated and elaborated primarily by man's rational faculty and learned by him basically for the purpose of communicating thought. It followed from this conception that literature was fundamentally embellishment and decoration, a nice refinement of the use of language, but not central to the pragmatic purpose of communication of thought. Many consequences have flowed from this bundle of misconceptions of language and literature, but I shall now only point an accusing finger at such English courses in the curriculum as Business Letter Writing or Grammar for Composition, "practical" courses frequently preferred over the "impractical" literature courses. We have known for a long time that such courses as these never achieved their aims, but we have been a long time finding out why. The reasons lie deep in the heart of our misconceptions.

How may we free ourselves from the constricting terms of such a narrow view of language? The way to such freedom is not long and not hard. If we would simply look honestly at our own experience with language, how we learned (and still learn) it and how we use it—how we are involved with it or entangled in it—we would discover quickly that language is filled with more mystery than sense, more caprice than logic, more surprise and defiance than compliance and capitulation. Language is not something we take or leave, learn or not learn; it is as inescapable and engulfing as the air which surrounds us, and like the air it is the substance by which we live our lives, by which we create and understand our nature and world. It is as vital to our nonphysical being as blood is to our body. In short, language is the most compelling manifestation we have of our humanness.

Another way to liberate ourselves from the utilitarian, reductive view of language is to listen to philosopher-scholars who have devoted their lives to speculative study and investigation of language. Take, for example, the great linguist and philologist Otto Jespersen, in *Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin:*

> The genesis of language is not to be sought in the prosaic, but in the poetic side of life; the source of speech is not gloomy seriousness, but merry play and youthful hilarity.[1]

Or note Edward Sapir's observation in *Language:*

> The autistic speech of children seems to show that the purely communicative aspect of language has been exaggerated. It is best to admit that language is primarily a vocal actualization of the tendency to see realities symbolically. . . .[2]

Or consider the philosopher Ernst Cassirer's statement from *Language and Myth:*

> It is language . . . that really reveals to man that world which is closer to him than any world of natural objects and touches his weal and woe more directly than physical nature. For it is language that makes his existence in a *community* possible; and only in society, in relation to a 'Thee,' can his subjectivity assert itself as a 'Me.'[3]

Or, finally, observe Susanne K. Langer's comments from *Philosophy in a New Key:*

> The fact is that our primary world of reality *is* a verbal one. Without words our imagination cannot retain distinct objects and their relations, but out of sight is out of mind. . . . The transformation of experience into concepts, not the elaboration of signals and symptoms, is the motive of language. Speech is through and through symbolic; and only sometimes signific. Any attempt to trace it back entirely to the need of communication, neglecting the formulative, abstractive experience at the root of it, must land us in the sort of enigma that the problem of linguistic origins has long presented. . . . One might say that, if ritual is the cradle of language, metaphor is the law of its life.[4]

Imagination Central

If we accept this new (but really very ancient) view of language, certain consequences for education are immediately evident. This view places language at the center of human existence and experience, and it places the imaginative (creative or symbolizing) rather than the logical (signifying or communicating) faculty at the center of linguistic life and growth. It follows from this concept that language should be at the center of any defensible curriculum, and that imaginative verbal experience (especially literature) should be at the heart of the language sequence. Reduced to its barest terms, the English curriculum from beginning to end should have as its primary aim the education, development, and fullest possible extension of the linguistic imagination. The construction of the curriculum should emphasize the primacy of creativity and imagination in learning to live as a full participant in the vital world of language.

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[1] Otto Jespersen. *Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1949; also New York: W. W. Norton & Company, 1964 (paperback).

[2] Edward Sapir. *Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1921.

[3] Ernst Cassirer. *Language and Myth.* New York: Dover Publications, 1946.

[4] Susanne K. Langer. *Philosophy in a New Key: A Study in the Symbolism of Reason, Rite, and Art.* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957.

If there is a "new English," it is English that has placed literature, defined in the broadest terms, at the center of the curriculum, and that has taken the development of the imagination, conceived in the most liberating sense, as its ultimate aim. In a skeptical world of logical positivists, the very existence of a faculty labelled Imagination may be called into doubt. But we must insist on its existence because we know that we cannot live lives as human beings without it. Like the dream or the unconscious or even mind itself, we know the imagination exists because we have experienced it within us and have witnessed it in others. That is sufficient proof for all but the most material-minded and unimaginative. Most thoughtful people and many speculative writers have paid tribute, at one time or another, to the imagination as vital to human life. Wallace Stevens, in *The Necessary Angel,* has put the matter this way: [Imagination is] "an aspect of the conflict between man and organized society. It is part of our security. It enables us to live our own lives. We have it because we do not have enough without it . . . the imagination is the power that enables us to perceive the normal in the abnormal, the opposite of chaos in chaos."

In this new conception of English, focusing on the faculty of the Imagination, there is a new realization that imaginative growth involves both receptivity and creativity, both witnessing and making, both intake and output. In short, there is realization that the creative impulse is an inherent part of the imagination, and that deep engagement with literature will naturally involve the creative act. Every English teacher has long known that the world is full of secret poets. It is the shame of our profession that we have not before now nourished rather than suppressed this natural—and, indeed, even *vital*—impulse to imaginative creation. Every English course should be a course in the imagination in its dual capacity as receptacle and creator. Put another way, every English course should become a course in imaginative reading and creative composition.

Literature's Moral Dimension

Before turning to some practical aspects of English in the contemporary curriculum, we should for a moment contemplate the complexity of the job of educating the imagination of our students. The imagination is no narrow faculty, but filters through and colors every part, every corner of our lives. Let us take, for example, the matter of morality, or character, or ethical values. In order to provide dramatic contrast between the old and the new, consider the following quotation from a 1917 volume called *The Teaching of English in the Secondary School*, by Charles Swain Thomas: "The literary selection [to be taught] must breathe the right ethical and social message. . . . Our most important task in teaching is the building of character, and our most effective agency is the literary selection."[5] Noble as these sentiments ring, we as English teachers must forego them—first, because they represent a superficial view of literature as containing "message"; second, because they are presumptuous in assuming that English teachers know what ethical and social messages are "right" not only for themselves but for everybody; and, third, because English teachers are (or should be) committed to the higher aim of educating the imagination.

Now, in the "new English" the teacher will need to come to terms with something we may call the "moral imagination." Although it is reductive to conceive literature as sending ethical messages to readers, it is blindness not to see that there is a moral dimension (among many other dimensions) in literature. This dimension is more frequently implicit than explicit, more often pervasive than concentrated in single lines or sentences. However we may conceive of this dimension—whether as a system of values, a vision of the nature of things, a truth—we must somehow come to terms with it in the classroom. How we might come to terms with it honestly and with any measure of success requires careful consideration, along the following lines.

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[5] Charles Swain Thomas. *The Teaching of English in the Secondary School.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917.

There are two ways to achieve a major failure: first, to treat the moral dimension as though it were the sole end of literature, to extract it, to encapsulate it, to divorce it from its material or dramatic embodiment and offer it to students as abstract truth; or, second, to avoid the difficulties and dangers of discussing the moral dimension by ignoring it and concentrating on formal, aesthetic, structural, or other elements. Both of these methods are reductive and lead to apathy and imaginative sterility in the English classroom. Nor can the teacher avoid these failures by selecting solely works of literature to teach that do not disturb, that are not "subversive" or upsetting—works that appear, in short, to be ethically or morally neutral (or neutered).

The curriculum should be open to books of a great variety of values and visions, including those that rub against the grain of society, that counter prevailing values as they are either preached or practiced. As the teacher is concerned with developing and expanding the student's total imaginative capacity, so he must be concerned with all aspects of the imagination, including the moral imagination. He should not become didactic and attempt to inculcate beliefs; rather he should question, discuss, and explore with his students. Such exploration will lead more frequently to complexity than to simplicity, to ambiguity than to precision, to paradox than to resolution. Literature so explored should open to the student a variety of possibilities of values and visions, confront him—like life itself—with a multiplicity of ethical systems or moral perspectives. This expansion and deepening of the student's moral awareness constitutes the education of his moral imagination.

It is perhaps useful to emphasize that the moral imagination is but one facet of the total imagination, which in some sense involves the whole person, the total personality. Other facets of the imagination will demand other strategies, other emphases, other approaches by the teacher. Although the concept of the education of the imagination as the aim of literary study is meant to be liberating for both student and teacher—liberating from narrowing notions of technical literary knowledge—it is in no sense meant to suggest that there will be fewer demands on the teacher's ingenuity. On the contrary, the teacher will confront greater and more intricate challenges than ever.

With these basic principles of a new approach to literature before us, let us turn to a few more specific questions about literature in the English curriculum.

Methods in the Classroom

The terms most useful in describing the contemporary literature teacher in the classroom are *informality, flexibility, improvisation.* There is general recognition that a student's real or lasting education in language and literature goes on outside rather than inside the classroom; that is, the shaping linguistic and literary experiences are those provided by the general culture—at home, by trusted or admired companions, by the generally uncontrollable encounters in a sometimes rich, sometimes brutishly deprived life. It is in recognition of this overriding fact that today's alert English classroom is more likely to look like a classroom moving beyond (but not out of) the Academic phase and into the Humanitarian (but not sentimental) phase of recent American educational history, as outlined in an oversimplified way at the beginning of this essay.

The modern literature teacher will concentrate on two major goals that will be approached so obliquely as perhaps to appear hidden. He will try to meet each student wherever he is, to honestly engage his understanding, his interest, his imagination, his emotional energies. This may mean that we will have to connect with or build on some unapproved or even disapproved storyteller secretly indulged and admired. And after he has reached the student, the modern teacher will try every means at his disposal to provide the experience that will grow into the lasting commitment—whether with *Huckleberry Finn, Sons and Lovers, Catcher in the Rye,* or *Catch-22;* whether with Edgar Allan Poe or A. Conan Doyle, Ernest Hemingway, Flannery O'Connor, or James Baldwin. No genuine literary education was ever the sole or even the major work of the schools; it has always been primarily the work of the individual fired with curiosity, drawn to the world of books by a great or even terrible hunger.

In the Academic phase of our educational revolution, much emphasis was placed on saving our intellectual resources by bringing together the brightest students into a single class and providing them with the most challenging and advanced academic program. In the current Humanitarian phase, there has come a recognition that such isolation and such accelerated programs can be damaging—damaging psychically in artificially separating students into status groups, depriving them of the stimulus of a wide range of associations; and damaging in encouraging phoney or sterile literary experiences in which complex books are intellectually analyzed but never emotionally felt or experienced. The modern literature teacher will welcome to his class students of a wide range of abilities, and he will encourage common experiences in language and literature—experiences to which all can contribute from their varied lives and from which all can benefit by a widening of linguistic and imaginative awareness. The teacher will see not one track but thirty individual tracks before him, all of them capable of sharing and contributing something to classroom experiences in the imagination, and each one following his own bent, interest, or enthusiasm outside the class.

Vitality an Imperative

In the modern literature classroom, three elements will be stressed more and more: vitality, drama, and creativity. It is imperative that the literature offered to students connect somehow, in meaningful and vital ways, with their lives. In some classes, this may mean throwing out *Julius Caesar* and *Silas Marner* and introducing in their place James Baldwin's *Go Tell It on the Mountain,* Ralph Ellison's *Invisible Man,* or Edward Albee's *American Dream.* It will mean bringing the literature to life by involving the students emotionally as well as intellectually —that is, dramatically—in it.

A dramatic teacher, engaging his students immediately in the dramatic spectacle of literature, including direct participation in the living drama of it, will find his students involved in spite of themselves. And as their appetites for the imaginative life of literature mount, the creative teacher will encourage the production and sharing of the student's own works—poems, stories, or plays. Stultifying criteria of correctness or form or convention will be banned from the classroom; students will be emboldened to follow the lead of their liberated imaginations, to write honestly out of the depths of inner experience and out of the perplexities of outer entanglements. By moving easily and naturally between their own lively imaginative productions and the literary experiences of classroom, library, and paperback bookstore, students should reduce that formidable distance between their everyday lives and the printed page, rendering the literary encounter as natural and necessary as other staples of life such as food and drink. In such a free and fluid environment, the imagination of each student will ideally develop to its full potential.

Close Reading and Critical Analysis

Connecting with, involving, awakening, and inspiring the student—these are the beginnings. But there are distances to go and the student must be transported as far as his abilities allow. Whereas the reading of a poem or story without emotional involvement is no experience at all, in any genuine sense, still the experience cannot honestly remain *only* a matter of the emotions. If the student is to carry out of the classroom into his other life a developing imagination that will lead to a continuation of vital literary encounter, his critical and analytical faculties must be developed through meaningful experience.

There is an intellectual as well as affective content to the literary experience, and to deny the one is as harmful as to deny the other. While an overemphasis of the intellectual response results in a tendency to glibness, abstraction, and sterility, an overemphasis of the emotional response may result in superficiality, muddlement, and gush. As in so many areas of life, a sensible balance needs to be struck. At this point we should remind ourselves that the Academic phase of the contemporary educational revolution significantly endures. Once our students are literarily "hooked," once they are imaginatively committed, it is our responsibility to lead or lure them to ever-deeper understanding of literature of ever-greater complexity and variety.

At some point, then, in the upper level of the literature curriculum, experiences in the close, detailed, line-by-line reading of texts, whether of a Sir Francis Bacon essay or a Gerard Manley Hopkins poem, are likely to appear. And this kind of experience will tend to merge with later experiences in the analysis and criticism of a variety of kinds of literary texts. In these more deliberately intellectualized approaches, the teacher must proceed delicately and with caution in order not to inhibit the uninvolved student and to avoid eliciting phoney responses and glib explanations. As in all teaching, the best methods are the inductive, and the student is most likely to be moved by a poem or story that he has discovered on his own, perhaps for an exercise in critical analysis.

When the student leaves school, it is hoped that he has developed a lifetime habit of reading books. But it is hoped further that he has developed the habit of reading with understanding books of real merit. For selection of books to read he needs a critical sense, an ability to see through the dustjacket blurb or the puff-review to the honest value of a book.

In developing a critical awareness in his students, today's literature teacher may turn his class into a lively session of critical controversy, arousing interest as well as passion in questions of value and how they might best be approached. As interest and curiosity grow, the teacher might introduce some of the more famous or notorious professional critical controversies over value or meaning—for example, the dispute over John Keats' "Ode on a Grecian Urn"; or he might encourage individual students to investigate the various critical treatments of a work in which the student finds an attractive but puzzling enigma. Teacher and students will discover in these joint explorations that there is, of course, genuine critical disagreement. But they will also discover that what frequently looks like disagreement in criticism is really a difference of approach, the several approaches not in conflict but actually complementing one another. In developing a critical sense, the student will come to know that there are many ways of seeing, many ways of entering, and many ways of understanding any piece of literature.

Organizing Sequences

English teachers are in some degree the custodians of our cultural heritage, and in this role they are constantly in search of the key that will unlock the door for their students. Although it may be necessary in the beginning to select a contemporary book of minor merit in order to reach a student, ultimately the teacher will want to move the student, or provide opportunity for the student to move himself, into the great works of the literary tradition. It is vital that the teacher be aware of the richness and abundance of that tradition in order to select from its infinite variety the works that will lure students in. Any view that reduces the tradition to *Silas Marner* and *Julius Caesar* is niggardly and unworthy of the profession. Too often the literary tradition is presented in our classrooms in such a way as to alienate the students permanently from it.

The literary tradition must be presented as a living and vital thing, not there to be swallowed whole, but at hand to answer the wide range of interests or fill the astonishingly various needs of readers of all ages and kinds. When this tradition becomes embalmed in an unwieldy, blockbuster textbook (it may be titled *American Literature from Jonathan Edwards to Edward Albee,* or *English Literature from Beowulf to Virginia Woolf*), it is most likely to remain dead in the classroom and unread outside it. This is not to say that vital and exciting units of study cannot be constructed with a historical-geographical emphasis, but such units are more likely to emerge from and connect with teacher-student interests if they are free of the rigidity imposed by a curriculum-dictating anthology.

Today's advanced English class is likely to be cut loose from the single omnibus text, and will move from a unit on tragedy to a unit on "man's aspirations and dilemmas," to a unit on lyric poetry, to a unit on composition, to a unit on the novel, and so on through the year. And the literature will be American, English, and (in translation) Continental European, Asian, African, and South American. Emphasis will be removed from coverage—galloping through 40 authors in 15 weeks—and placed on understanding and responding in depth, and on the arousing of curiosity and interest that will lead each student to deeper and wider explorations. The teacher will be constantly experimenting, trying new works, discarding those that refuse to come to life, retaining the new or old that really connect with students. In short, the curriculum will be in constant flux and change, but revitalized throughout with the rich heritage of English, American, and world literature.

If we glance once again at the historical survey of education with which I began, we may see the weaknesses of each period. In the Authoritarian stage, we were trying to preserve an elitist culture for an elitist group. In the Progressive stage, emphasis shifted to democracy—but unfortunately also to mediocrity. In the Academic stage, we have reintroduced the idea of an elite—an intellectual elite—but have, perhaps, lost ground socially. In the current Humanitarian stage, the challenge will be to preserve our schools as microcosms of genuine democracy, but at the same time to educate for excellence. The problem of balancing equality and individuality is an old, old one in America. Whitman summed it up thus:

> One's-self I sing, a simple separate person,
> Yet utter the word Democratic, the word En-Masse.

Perhaps the most important aspect of literature teaching today is the teacher's new view of the significance to the individual of language and imagination. It is through the linguistic imagination that the human being creates, orders, or comes to terms with his world, both inner and outer. In a fundamental sense, an individual's identity is achieved through the linguistic imagination. His all-important relations with other individuals are shaped by his linguistic imagination, and his role in the world is to a large extent created and determined by his linguistic imagination. Language shapes or symbolizes experience; imagination shapes or extends language; and literature shapes or liberates the imagination. Language, imagination, and literature are inseparably intertwined and are central to the human being and the educational process, from the earliest stages to the last. It is this enlarged view of the crucial significance of his subject that identifies the new or contemporary English teacher. And he will not be completely unfettered in his vital tasks until the public generally gives up its narrow notions that an English teacher is a policeman of propriety and correctness in language and accepts the view that an English teacher, in dealing with language and literature, is dealing with the precious stuff of life itself.

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"Teachers utilizing concepts from communication theory . . . are less concerned with delivery and more concerned with the message as an element common to both speaker and listener."

Developments in Speech

WILLIAM WORK

ALTHOUGH instructional reforms have taken place more slowly in the arts and humanities than in the sciences and mathematics, no segment of the curriculum has remained static in the post-Sputnik era. Along with a "new mathematics," a "new physics," and even a "new English," there are equally new currents in secondary school speech education. This article presents an overview of these new approaches and an inventory of developments still needed, in terms of content, approach, personnel, facilities, and strategy.

Secondary school speech classes have been characterized, sometimes justifiably, as skill-oriented "frill" courses lacking in content. The same accusations, with equal justification, have been leveled at the "oral English" components of regular English classes. That ours is an era marked by knowledge and population explosions has been well documented; that a communications explosion is also taking place is not as fully recognized. The growth of the mass media, particularly the oral-aural-visual media of radio, television, and film, and other technological developments such as data processing and cybernetics have created a social environment in which communication in all its forms has assumed new importance.

Man's ability to communicate thought has long been recognized as his central distinguishing characteristic. The survival of the species depends on man's ability to demonstrate the effec-

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tiveness of dialogue as an alternative to mass destruction. New developments in secondary school speech education reflect this social climate.

Speech education theory has for years been based principally on the teachings of the classical rhetoricians and their followers. That the writings of Plato, Cicero, and Quintilian are still relevant is a testament to the genius of these men. But these great writer-teachers had the benefit of neither modern scientific knowledge nor the tools of modern scientific inquiry. The "new speech" is adding to the artistic and humanistic contributions of the ancients the findings of behavioral scientists who seek to describe communication as a dynamic process.

Concern With the Message

Teachers utilizing concepts from communication theory try to develop in their students a functional understanding of the similarities and differences between the modes of expression (speaking and writing) and the modes of response (listening and reading). Such teachers are less concerned with delivery and more concerned with the message as an element common to both speaker and listener. They tend to place primary stress on the principles and skills of interpersonal communication rather than on the principles and skills of public speaking. They also place stress on the theory and techniques needed to assess critically the output of the mass media. Finally, they want their students to understand the influences of varying cultures on communication.

The artistic and humanistic dimensions of speech education theory are not being abandoned in favor of a scientific approach, but the older base is being broadened to encompass new insights resulting from behavior-oriented inquiry. Communication theorists and traditionalists have not fully reconciled their differences; the ensuing dialogue promises to bring important new strengths to speech education.

Changing Emphasis

There are still other new developments relating to the content of speech education in the secondary schools. There is a stronger emphasis on rhetoric—subject matter, arrangement, and style in oral discourse. The superficial aspects of oral communication (delivery) are being subordinated to the substantive aspects (content). There is relatively less emphasis on formal speechmaking and relatively more on group discussion and other forms of interpersonal communication.

Informative speaking, epitomized at its lowest level by the "What I Did Last Summer" speech and the book report, is getting less stress than is persuasive speaking. The latter develops the student's ability to analyze issues critically and competence to prepare suitable logical and emotional appeals for a specific audience that has been studied in depth. These trends are in keeping with the new significance problem-solving has acquired in contemporary educational methodology.

Furthermore, since listening is in many respects a dominant element in the total communication spectrum, increased emphasis is being placed on theory and practice directed toward improving students' critical use of that faculty. The findings of the general semanticists and others who are linguistically oriented are broadening the conceptual base from which speech-communication instruction stems.

Much as literature can function as a model for improvement in writing, so the rich heritage of written speeches can be used as a stimulus for more effective oral composition, and it is being used increasingly for this purpose. And the relationships between thought processes and acts of communication are being given much more attention.

In all of these developments, there is a perceptible trend toward incorporating in the secondary school curriculum elements of speech-communication content formerly found primarily in higher education.

Use of Team Teaching

Approaches to learning that are gaining currency in other aspects of the secondary school curriculum are also finding their way into secondary school speech programs. An example is the increased use of team teaching. The fractionalizing of the English language into narrow disciplines is, after all, more an administrative and academic convenience than a natural outgrowth of the organic and functional nature of language itself. Rightly or wrongly, however, teacher preparation programs have tended toward specialization, and narrow specialization is not always suited to the teaching of functional concepts and skills. But at last teachers of reading, of literature and written composition, and of speaking and listening are bringing together their respective specialties to help students achieve a single goal: command of the English language.

Team efforts of speech teachers are not limited to working with colleagues in the field of English; they are working equally effectively with teachers of history, drama, and social studies. These collaborative efforts are especially productive when they involve teachers who are concerned with the exploration of contemporary problems in their courses. In much the same way that English teachers have sought reinforcement for better student writing in other subject matter courses, so speech teachers are working with staff members having other academic specializations to improve the speech-communication dimensions of all of a school's learning activities.

In this connection, it hardly needs saying that speech teachers are also developing teams within their own instructional field, often resulting in a unified course which makes available to all students the varying approaches, perspectives, and experiences to be found in the teaching team.

Other Approaches

Another approach that is yielding promising results in secondary school speech programs is peer group teaching and rating. Devised originally as a means for coping with large numbers of students, peer group instruction involves a form of supervised student-to-student teaching. On the basis of both subjective judgment and experimental testing, it has been found to promote effective learning. Peer group rating, where students evaluate the speaking performances of their fellow students, not only yields judgments that supplant those of the teacher, but also has proved to be a useful incentive for learning and practicing the techniques of critical listening.

Independent study, including the programed variety, is being used for teaching theoretical concepts in such areas as parliamentary procedure and phonetics. It will doubtless be extended to additional segments of the speech curriculum that are compatible with procedures that rely extensively on self-instruction.

Other experiments in secondary school speech education may ultimately gain general currency. For instance, in one high school a faculty–student repertory company performs short plays and cuttings as a means of enriching and vitalizing instruction in such academic areas as history, literature, and foreign languages. In another school, speech seminars provide students with a forum for discussing school, regional, national, and international problems.

All of the newer designs for speech instruction in secondary schools emphasize both improving the quality of the instruction and increasing the relevance of its content to the lives of students. In the past, speech programs have tended to serve primarily the handicapped at one end of the continuum and the gifted at the other end. Now, new ways are being sought to help *all* students.

Hardware for Instruction

There has been much light-headed and heavy-handed talk in recent years about technological developments in education. To a considerable extent, these developments have outstripped the ability of educators to determine what should be taught, when it should be taught, to whom it should be taught, and by whom. The production of educational hardware has run well ahead of the development of the essential "software" needed to make its use meaningful. Because the bulk of recent technological advances in education involves communication devices, the speech teacher and the audiovisual-aids specialist have shown a special interest in them.

Language laboratories developed originally from efforts to improve foreign language instruction. But it has been demonstrated that these same laboratories can also be adapted to native language instruction. In one midwestern high school, for example, a dial-access language laboratory is used for practice in impromptu and extemporaneous speaking, for voice and diction drill, and for administering pronunciation tests.

The audio-recorder—disc, wire, or tape—has long been a right-hand servant of the speech teacher and speech student. Tape recorders, prerecorded tapes, and other audiovisual devices are used increasingly in the high school speech classroom. The advent of low cost video-tape recorders makes it now feasible for speech teachers in a majority of schools to use this tool to motivate students and give them a means for detached self-evaluation. Let no one argue that a $5.00 full-length mirror can accomplish anything that a $1,500 video-tape recorder can accomplish!

The potential of closed circuit television as a stimulus for instructional improvement in the schools remains largely unrealized. Ignorance, apathy, and fear have joined forces with dedication to low-budget operations to hold back its development—a development that can, when properly handled, substantially strengthen a school's entire educational program. Where television facilities and trained personnel are available, opportunities for speech instruction are accordingly enriched. Closed circuit television provides a unique laboratory for students and teachers to study the capabilities and limitations of this dominant communication medium. The growth of educational television stations and networks, not to mention the possibility of satellite transmission both to and *from* the schools, suggests the need for renewed and continuing study and experimentation in this area.

Guidelines for Action

Paradoxically, leaders both in and out of the educational community deplore the low state of communication in our society, but seem unwilling or unable to undertake remedial action. This lowly condition is manifested in the empty rhetoric of political campaigning, in the vapid mouthings of television and radio "personalities," and in the lifeless dialogue of the popular drama. It can be heard in the verbal forays that characterize our local, national, and international political forums, in the numberless classrooms peopled by inarticulate teachers and apathetic nonlisteners, and in the communication breakdowns that disrupt our daily professional and personal lives. In all of these instances, there seems to be tacit professional and lay acceptance of the idea that nothing can really be done about the situation. The speech education community offers no panacea, nor has it reached full consensus on what should be done. Thoughtful speech educators, however, do agree that remedial action is badly needed and now, and that something can be done to better the situation. Most would accept the following premises as guidelines for action.

A. Following a national assessment of the status of speech education in the schools, a massive research and development effort involving a "Project Speech," parallel in certain respects to the "Project English" curriculum study and demonstration centers, should be undertaken. The objectives of this effort would be to determine on a broad base the theoretical and practical oral communication competencies needed by the individual in society. Once identified, these competencies could be rigorously examined from the standpoint of learning theory, instructional program development, and integration with the total curriculum. Research gaps should be bridged and experimental programs at the elementary, secondary, and teacher preparation levels should be devised and tested. It seems clear that secondary school speech programs will not achieve maximum effectiveness until the present amorphous "language arts" program at the elementary school level is radically overhauled.

B. With or without a large-scale research and development project, a number of reforms in speech education are indicated. Theoretically at least, one of the easiest to effect would be the rigorous adherence by administrators to the principle that speech should be taught by persons trained to teach it and should never be taught by those not properly trained. Even a cursory examination of curricula for the preparation of English teachers reveals the inadequacy of these programs in the area of oral communication theory and skills. Nor is the English teacher ordinarily equipped to direct debate, produce plays, or coach students for speech contests and festivals.

C. More adequate facilities need to be provided for curricular and cocurricular speech programs. From the standpoint of secondary school theater programs, the combined auditorium-cafeteria-gymnasium is a most unfortunate fiscal expedient. (I can only speculate on the adverse effects that digestion and physical education may be suffering!) If the laboratory is essential for the teaching of science and the fully equipped shop for teaching certain mechanical skills, then the theater, the broadcasting studio, the language laboratory, the well-stocked speech section in the library, and classrooms equipped with suitable platforms, lecterns, recorders, etc. are requisite to the success of the speech program.

D. The entire complex of communication arts and sciences, firmly established in higher education, has yet to find its rightful place in the secondary schools. It will not find that place until all who are or who should be concerned reach certain understandings and agreements. Parents, school boards, administrators and teachers—especially English and speech teachers—need to analyze the issues and project more viable programs. Professional associations need to develop guidelines consistent with educational realities.

A final word about new educational developments. Innovation is in danger of becoming one of the principal false gods of the latter part of the twentieth century. No one, perhaps speech educators least of all, will deny that reform is needed. No one will deny that innovation—properly thought out, properly researched, and properly tested—is one path to reform. But only those who seek to legitimatize their activities by creating an *illusion* of forward progress will be deluded by the belief that innovation per se holds any greater promise for the realization of long-held educational goals than some of the more difficult if less glamorous tasks that continue to face us.

"Special reading classes are being planned overnight and hastily staffed with inexperienced and untrained teachers, recruited usually from the English department. In such circumstances, confusion and disappointment are inevitable, but there remains at least the hope of learning from mistakes."

Reading:

In and Out of the English Curriculum

MARGARET J. EARLY

BECAUSE reading and study skills are basic to every subject in the secondary school curriculum, English teachers do not have exclusive rights to the teaching of reading. Nor do they want such prerogatives. But they do have responsibilities for understanding the nature of reading instruction in secondary schools, for defining the differences between "reading" and "English," and for giving leadership to schoolwide efforts to improve reading services. As articulate spokesmen for all-school developmental programs, English teachers can dispel the notion that remedial or corrective programs are the answer to all the reading ills in a secondary school. By clearly defining the role of English with respect to reading, they can help other members of the faculty understand *their* roles and assume *their* responsibilities.

Until this decade, the extension of reading instruction beyond the elementary school has been slow, haphazard, and piecemeal. Now, with the aid of state and federal funds, the momentum has increased but secondary programs are still haphazard and piecemeal. Special reading classes are being planned overnight and hastily staffed with inexperienced and untrained teachers, recruited usually from the English department. In such circum-

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stances, confusion and disappointment are inevitable, but there remains at least the hope of learning from mistakes. School systems that began by scheduling special reading classes have become aware of their limitations and are moving now, with the help of ESEA funds, to more broadly based programs involving subject-matter teachers beyond the English department.

Importance of Clarity of Purpose

False starts can be avoided by long-range planning. From the beginning, administrators and teachers should know the dimensions of reading instruction in the secondary school. Its aim is the extension and refinement of skills, habits, and attitudes which have begun to take shape in the elementary grades. How can this extension and refinement be accomplished? In two ways: (1) through direct skills instruction concentrated in reading and English courses, and (2) through the fusion of reading and study skills with subject matter in all other courses. Of the two approaches, logic lies with the second; it makes more sense to "extend and refine" reading and study skills as they are required for subject matter learning. Nevertheless, we can defend direct instruction through reading courses or units of study as an expedient in schools where few teachers are prepared to teach reading-study skills.

Which of these two approaches should receive first emphasis is a point of needless controversy. Obviously, this question of priority has to be settled by the resources available in a given situation. Where a competent reading consultant is available, the approach through subject matter should probably be emphasized. Where there are large numbers of immature readers, and where experienced reading teachers may be recruited or inexperienced ones trained, it would be sensible to begin with direct instruction. Either approach is a safe one so long as the ultimate goal of an all-school developmental program is firmly established with administrators, teachers, and boards of education.

Either approach involves the English department from the beginning, because English teachers are responsible for both skills learning and subject matter. If the decision is to emphasize direct instruction, English teachers will have to staff the program, wholly or partially. If the approach is through subject matter, they will have as much to learn as their colleagues about how to teach reading-study skills instead of merely requiring their use.

Direct Instruction

Direct instruction classes are usually labeled "corrective" or "developmental." These labels are relatively unimportant except as they suggest that the major concern in secondary school reading is *not* with the remedial. When we define *remedial* precisely, we limit its application to students of average to superior mental ability who have not learned to read beyond first-grade or second-grade level, even though they have had opportunities to learn. In the average American high school, relatively few students fall into this category. Those who do are likely to be suffering from psychoneurological disturbances requiring specialized treatment. After years of failure they should not in secondary schools be assigned to still another reading class. English teachers and minimally trained reading teachers are not remedial clinicians. The school's responsibility to such severely handicapped students is to help them to learn through channels other than reading, referring them when possible for expert psychological and medical advice.

In center-city schools (and in many rural and suburban schools as well), illiterate or almost illiterate adolescents are found in high school classrooms. These young people do not fit the restricted definition of "remedial" we have just applied. Therefore, they may be appropriately assigned to corrective or developmental classes of limited size, so that teachers can learn to work with them individually much of the time. It is arguable that these youth do not need the skills concentration that is the *raison d'etre* for special reading classes. If, however, the goals and consequently the methods and materials of instruction are reoriented for these pupils, the "extra reading class" is as justifiable for them as for others.

The most optimistic goal for the average adolescent illiterate is that he will become a reader, not a student. This means that the total effort should be to get him to read—anything. Perhaps the worst approach is through textbooks, workbooks, and skill-building exercises. (One junior high teacher tells me that mimeographed sheets are more palatable to these pupils than are more legible, better designed workbook pages, probably because the former seem more personalized, even when they are not.) If textbooks are ever to be used successfully with these pupils, it will only be after they have learned personally satisfying reasons for reading. Only then will it be possible to develop orderly sequences for word analysis skills and basic comprehension skills.

So far, success stories involving adolescent illiterates are rare. Those that have appeared emphasize the importance of motivation and endorse all kinds of unorthodox materials, from menus and racing forms to hot rod magazines and best selling paperbacks. The program described by Daniel Fader in *Hooked on Books* as achieving varieties of success in a boys' training school in Michigan and the Garnett-Patterson Junior High School in Washington, D.C., breaks with traditions of both reading and English.[1] Apparently, what happens when seeming "illiterates" suddenly begin to read adult magazines and paperbacks is that walls of resistance are shattered and dormant skills are put back into service. The true illiterate has no dormant skills, and for him miracles come more slowly.

Helping Readers Become "Studiers"

Dramatic though they may be, the problems of the adolescent illiterate are not the chief concern of secondary reading instruction. Rather, the main thrust is toward students who have acquired the basic skills which need to be extended and refined. They are competent "general" readers by the criteria of standardized grade-level tests. Our aim is to help these readers become students, that is, "studiers"—persons who learn through reading. When we set up special reading courses for these readers, our reason is that they require more direct teaching, followed up by intensive practice, in how to read and study than is being supplied by the teachers of subject matter courses.

The content of the reading course should be dictated by the needs of the students. We analyze the reading tasks required in studying textbooks; we test students' abilities with respect to these tasks and identify where they need help. On the basis of this skills analysis, we select from instructional materials of varying difficulty those lessons needed by particular students. We provide for practice but only after demonstrations and explanations have made clear how to apply the skill. Frequently this teaching is directed at individuals and small groups, but occasionally all students in a class may need teaching preceding differentiated practice.

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[1] Daniel Fader. *Hooked on Books.* New York: Berkley Publishing Corporation, 1966.

The focus on skills development dictates a laboratory classroom, equipped minimally with many short sets of textbooks and workbooks on varying levels, dictionaries and other references, and several hundred paperbacks. Ideally, the room should also be equipped with study carrels, tape recorders and headsets, projectors and viewers, and under some circumstances with a few pacers for improving rate of reading. Extensive equipment will not ensure excellent instruction, but neither can we expect dramatic achievement when the teacher is a "floater," with access to a duplicating machine and a box of skills exercises and little else.

As part of the English curriculum, the goals, methods, and materials of the reading course are similar to those of other English offerings. Periods of instruction are usually shorter, ranging perhaps from two to six weeks of intensive work on reading-study skills, per se. This brief time allotment is compensated for by the fact that English teachers who employ unit methods and laboratory techniques can extend skills instruction to groups and individuals from time to time throughout the year.

Motivation Essential

Skills practice in any endeavor—sports, music, typewriting, reading—must be highly motivated and sharply focused on individual needs. Even so, it can be dull or demanding. Students would rather engage in discussion (often lively but irrelevant), or they would rather escape thinking by listening or pretending to listen, or by a type of reading for pleasure which is more closely akin to daydreaming than to thinking. For teachers, too, skills instruction is more demanding and less interesting than leading a discussion, lecturing, demonstrating, or merely talking. In reading classes, the great temptation is to distribute the mimeographed exercises, get out the skills box, plug in the film or tape recorder, and then escape to the teacher's room for a cup of coffee. No wonder students learn to hate reading classes, even if they like to read.

How can we motivate? This question is often asked in despair by teachers who don't want a usable answer. It is difficult to motivate skills practice unrelated to substantive learning. This is the hurdle we set for ourselves when we organize special reading classes. Since we would not schedule these classes in the first place unless convinced of their usefulness, we must be willing to surmount the hurdle. One way to infuse the skills course with purpose may be to treat it as a course in the psychology of learning, one in which students study themselves as learners. Another way is to teach individuals instead of large groups. Another is to let students see success as they chart their own progress. Nourishing a spark of motivation takes constant attention. The flame can go out while the teacher distributes mimeographed exercises or the student chalks up another failure.

Teacher May Lack Motivation

Perhaps the teacher's own lack of motivation contributes most to failure in skills courses. Just as he needs to offer constant and genuine encouragement to his students, so, too, the teacher needs to have his enthusiasm bolstered. He needs tangible help—materials, ideas, equipment—from consultant and principal. He needs their support in scheduling classes of reasonable size, and in providing time for diagnosis and consultation. Most of all he needs to see progress in the spread of the program throughout the subject classes.

Because skills instruction is a hard job, especially for the novice, many reading classes become something else. In the hands of English teachers they often become extensions of literature courses, weak courses at that.

"Send me an English teacher who knows the difference between teaching reading and teaching literature," pleaded a secondary school principal recently. In too many junior high school reading classes, the bulk of the time is spent in reading novels—in common. When a teacher orders thirty copies of *The Yearling* for a junior high reading class, this is a sure sign that he is unaware of the objectives of reading instruction. (If he orders whole class sets of any textbook, he is doing a poor job of teaching skills, and many believe he is doing a poor job of teaching literature, too.)

Of course, we can justify the inclusion of fiction in a reading course as part of "free reading." One of the aims is to get weak students to read whatever appeals to them, and fiction appeals to many as a relatively undemanding exercise of basic reading skills. Wide reading serves an appropriate skills objective: it is a vehicle for developing fluency, adding to vocabulary, and exercising simple comprehension skills such as the ability to follow sequence. But reading fiction does nothing for the development of essential study skills such as relating major and minor ideas, understanding closely reasoned argument, judging facts, following explanations, and other skills necessary for the assimilation of informative prose.

The study of *how* to read literature can be justified as content for the reading and study skills class only when equal time is allotted to how to read science, history, mathematics, and other subjects. Obviously, equal allotment of time to each subject in the curriculum means that scant attention can be paid to any of them, and thus points up again the need for teaching reading not only in the special class but in every subject area. The teaching of subject-oriented skills in the special reading class sets up an artificial learning situation, takes additional time, lessens the chance that something of substantive value can be learned at the same time that skills are being refined, and puts the burden for the transfer of learning wholly upon students.

English teachers, while claiming to be unprepared to teach reading,[2] assert that they do it all the time. They mean, of course, that they *use* reading in the literature program but are ill equipped to deal with word analysis, basic comprehension skills, and rate of reading—the components they define as "reading." It is the exceptional English teacher who teaches his students how to read imaginative literature. In his disregard of the skills required for reading in his specialty, the average English teacher is no different from his colleagues in other subject fields.

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[2] According to *The National Interest and the Continuing Education of Teachers of English* (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), 90 percent of English teachers do not feel well qualified to teach reading.

The truly professional English teacher who recognizes his dual role as a teacher of skills and of subject matter distinguishes between reading and literature and gives balanced attention to both. (English teachers of junior high school students or of weaker students in the senior high school give more time to developing reading skills and interests, less time to the study of literature. Teachers of mature students reverse the emphases.)

Reading Versus Literature

How do we distinguish between "reading" and "literature" in the secondary school curriculum? Differences are evident in the objectives and in the materials of instruction. The development of reading-study skills requires informative or expository prose as its vehicle of instruction, rather than discursive or imaginative writing. If the fare of the English course is exclusively novels, poetry, and drama, the English teacher can fulfill only one part of his dual role. Fortunately, nonfiction articles and essays are found in most anthologies. If these have been abandoned, the teacher must seek other sources of nonfiction, principally periodicals. Materials do not make the program, of course. But the absence of expository prose proves that reading-study skills are being ignored; its presence indicates at least the possibility of appropriate instruction.

Many reading teachers and supervisors are unaware of any confusion between reading and literature. They assume that the narrative-type materials which predominate in elementary school —where individualized reading as well as basal approaches have favored narrative materials—should be continued in junior high school, even though by this time students' needs have shifted from general comprehension to study skills. Fortunately, the current trend in elementary reading instruction is to correct the imbalance in materials and in methods of teaching. As more exposition is included in elementary materials and as elementary literature programs become more sharply distinguished from basal reading instruction, the tradition of basing developmental reading on narrative prose will die out.

Confronted with the obligation to teach reading-study skills *and* skills for reading literature, English teachers plead the restrictions of time. In junior high school, time limitations are eased by extra reading classes, double English periods, and core or block-time arrangements. In senior high English classes, the time required for direct instruction will become less as more of the reading-study skills are shifted to the content areas. Elective courses in reading-study skills, especially for college-bound students in grades 11 and 12, are another kind of solution. Nevertheless, many English teachers must still decide what to leave out in order to include reading-study skills.

We suggest a hard look at the efficiency of the language instruction and the inordinate amount of time given to the discussion of literature. Fortunately, new developments in language and literature suggest economies in teaching. (See Harold B. Allen's article in this symposium.) Moreover, new methods of organization, such as team teaching and laboratory techniques, provide more time for skills instruction and free reading than do methods which treat a class of 25 or 30 as an inflexible unit.

Schoolwide Reading Improvement

Leaving reading instruction entirely in the hands of the English department, even one with a supplementary staff of reading teachers, has proved extremely limiting. The resulting program may be effective but limited, or it may be merely an extension of English and not very effective at all. In either case, the program falls far short of what we mean by teaching reading in the secondary school.[3]

In schools where reading instruction is truly pervasive, it would be inappropriate to talk about reading "programs." Instruction would be clearly visible and measurable, but it would be so thoroughly integrated with subject learning that it would not show on master schedules. There would be no extra classes and no reading teachers and, except in large urban schools, no special clinics or laboratories. But this pervasive instruction, reaching into every classroom where reading is a medium of learning, would be visible to the administrator who knows what to look for.

For example, the administrator surveying reading instruction in his school would look in every classroom for answers to questions like these:

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[3] Olive S. Niles. "Systemwide In-Service Programs in Reading." *The Reading Teacher*, No. 19 (March 1966).

- Do teachers frequently develop concepts and introduce vocabulary *before* students read an assignment?
- Do teachers help students to identify the reading tasks required by a particular assignment?
- Do they then demonstrate how to apply the necessary skills?
- Is attention paid not only to what a textbook says but to how it is said, that is, to the author's choice of words, his sentence structure, and his organization of ideas?
- Is the author's purpose examined?
- Are comparisons made among treatments of the same subject?
- Are students not only encouraged to make judgments but shown how?
- Are teachers aware of the different kinds of reading abilities their students possess?
- Do they help them to make the best use of their various abilities by providing books and other reading materials on varying levels of difficulty?

Supervisory Leadership Essential

The foregoing questions, by no means comprehensive, suggest what we mean by teaching reading in secondary schools. To initiate and maintain this pervasive instruction in reading requires strong administrative backing and the day-to-day services of a competent coordinator, who may or may not be attached to the English department. Just as scheduling reading classes produces no easy solutions, neither does hiring a coordinator, provided one can be found. But it is well for administrators to recognize the need for schoolwide reading improvement. In large schools, the English chairman's hands are too full to undertake this task even though, if he is competent, he will understand and give support to the movement. The near-impossibility of finding a reading coordinator leads most schools to select one of their own staff, perhaps a reading-English teacher, and to subsidize his further study. We recommend a year if possible of full-time study at a university near enough to his school that its students, teachers, and resources can be subjects of his study.

Educating teachers to teach reading is the main job ahead. State and federal funds have presented us with opportunities for greatly expanding in-service education; what we need now are ideas for spending this money effectively. Among the least effective methods is transplanting the university course intact to the school cafeteria for 15 weekly meetings from 4 p.m. to 6 p.m. Nor is the currently popular plan of bringing in a series of guest lecturers from hither and yon likely to prove any more effective —if by effective we mean producing changes in the classroom. Even lecture courses that are well planned and intelligently presented probably do little more than supply background information, spark interest, and soften the attitudes of recalcitrant teachers, getting them ready to have someone else do the job that needs doing!

Along with or instead of the credit course or lecture series, some schools get the most from their government grants by concentrating attention on a few teachers at a time and freeing them, by hiring substitutes, to work intensively with the reading consultant. For example, three small school systems in central New York have selected key teachers from their secondary school faculties to attend a series of three week-long workshops conducted at intervals during the first semester at a nearby university reading center. Three days of each week are spent in the center in intensive study of reading methodology applied to the teachers' own textbooks; two days are spent in local schools observing preplanned reading lessons in the content areas, in examining other phases of the reading program, and in teaching demonstration lessons to "borrowed" classes. Between the weeks on campus, these teachers spend regularly scheduled days in their own schools demonstrating for each other and for the university personnel who are consultants to the project. In each school, these teachers are becoming the nucleus for subject-centered reading instruction.

The Reading Center staff at Syracuse University has produced a series of 10 films on teaching reading in secondary schools. These films, accompanied by 15 manuals, constitute the core of an in-service workshop to be directed by a school's reading consultant, supplemented perhaps by university personnel. The films are meant as an introductory step in developing an all-school program. Like the customary course, they will prove minimally effective unless followed up by work in the teachers' own classrooms. However, the film package can be used with considerably more flexibility and economy than can the university course. For example, the films may be viewed by a single department, with discussion restricted to the special concerns of this particular group. Teachers study the film content through viewing and reviewing, discuss with each other the implications for their classrooms, turn to the manuals and suggested references for more information, and try out recommended procedures. The films appear to offer another approach to in-service education without straining further the overextended resources of the universities.

Administrators about to embark upon schoolwide efforts to improve reading instruction would do well to study the recommendations made by Olive S. Niles in her article previously cited.

Summary

In an all-school reading program, English teachers have responsibilities comparable to those of other subject specialists. Additionally, they are responsible for the direct instruction of reading-study skills as part of regularly scheduled English courses or in extra classes. In spite of the fact that reading is one of the skills of language which, with literature, constitutes the discipline of English, the majority of teachers of English seem neither better prepared nor more willing to teach reading-study skills than their colleagues on secondary faculties. Because of lack of preparation, English teachers assigned to reading classes tend to teach literature or promote wide reading and to ignore reading-study skills.

There is no standard pattern for reading instruction in secondary schools nor should there be, but readily observable features distinguish excellent from mediocre direct-skills instruction. Chief among these are the attention given to individuals, the diversity of materials for skills instruction, the preponderance of expository prose in skills exercises, and collections of paperbacks and periodicals for wide reading.

Similarly, reading instruction in subject matter classes does not follow fixed patterns, but is easily identified by the ways in which those teachers direct students towards the process of learning through reading.

Schemes for improving reading instruction in the secondary school should probably concentrate first on the preparation of teachers in in-service action programs, since preservice courses are rare and in any case theoretical and introductory. English departments should play leading roles when a whole school faculty undertakes reading improvement. Along with helping others to understand the rationale of a whole school program, English teachers should decide upon the relative emphases to be given direct instruction in reading-study skills and in how to read literature.

"More often than not the teaching of composition is done negatively—after the fact. . . . The problem hinges on the unvoiced assumption that somehow a student knows how to write and the teacher's job is to show the student what he did wrong."

Developments in Composition

GORDON WILSON
ROBERT J. LACAMPAGNE

THE teaching of composition is undergoing a revitalization similar to that in the teaching of literature and language. A reexamination of central issues and a change in professional attitude have hastened this revitalization. Motivation, the creative or composing process, rhetoric and linguistics, and classroom conditions necessary for the development of composition skills now command major attention. As discussion of these areas grows, the profession is developing more promising theories and a concrete body of knowledge to supplant the traditions and inaccurate assumptions underlying older problems.

The promise of many new approaches to teaching composition is reducing tensions that stem from a variety of conflicting opinions. There is the outraged cry of the professional writer who claims: "Writing can't be taught." School principals are more aware of the louder cry of employers, college professors, and the general public who ask: "Why don't the schools teach writing any more?" And there are even those who question whether students other than the gifted should be taught writing: "How often do you write in adult life anyway?"

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The teacher of composition, caught between such diverse opinions, has not been encouraged by research findings in composition. Some still believe that knowledge of the older, formal grammar will help students write better. Yet an NCTE committee reporting on research on written composition concludes:

> In view of the widespread agreement of research studies based upon many types of students and teachers, the conclusion can be stated in strong and unqualified terms: The teaching of formal grammar has a negligible or, because it usually displaces some instruction and practice in actual composition, even a harmful effect on the improvement of writing.[1]

Others quite naturally have assumed that writing more will increase one's composing skills. They are shaken to read research which seriously questions the claim that frequent writing in itself improves composition skills.[2]

Even the time-honored practice of evaluating or correcting papers has been challenged by those questioning its effectiveness, claiming that such a procedure does little to *teach* writing. One research study concludes: "Intensive evaluation is seemingly no more effective than moderate evaluation in improving the quality of written composition."[3]

Despite the considerable problems and controversies concerned with teaching composition, there is general agreement that students at all ages and stages need guidance in learning to write effectively and that educators cannot depend on chance and the student's natural abilities alone. Developments in the field of composition suggest that we now have the means to fulfill our obligation to give such guidance. We discuss a few of these.

Motivation

Broadly conceived, motivation resides in the student's sense of human relationship with others and in the ideas, impressions, and feelings which he wishes to communicate. All students have emotions, opinions, and attitudes that used appropriately can provide the impetus for useful writing experiences. But this internal reservoir must be tapped by skillful hands. Faced with a sterile exercise in writing about "My Summer Vacation" or "My Pet Peeve" in five hundred words, a student is motivated at the lowest level. Quite obviously the compositions he writes will reflect this fact.

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[1] Richard Braddock, Richard Lloyd-Jones and Lowell Schoer. *Research in Written Composition*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965, p. 37.

[2] Frank Heys, Jr. "The Theme-a-Week Assumption: A Report of an Experiment." *English Journal* LI (May 1962), pp. 320-322.

[3] Lois V. Arnold. "Writer's Cramp and Eyestrain—Are They Paying Off?" *English Journal* LIII (January 1964), p. 14.

If a student has a sense of audience—that he is communicating with his class, his school, with the world, or even with one interested, responsive teacher, with someone who is listening and might respond—he may be moved to make his composition more than an assignment that "has to be turned in by Friday." This need for a sense of audience is vital to any writer. Too often the student knows that the exclusive audience of his work is the teacher and, even sadder to contemplate, that this single audience response will be solely in the form of abbreviations scratched on his paper—*sp., awk., punct.*—hardly the type of response to generate future enthusiasm for writing.

More and more schools have established ways of extending a student's audience for his compositions. Student publications have traditionally served this purpose. But as in the school play or in varsity athletics, only the best are asked to perform. A more educationally defensible method used by some schools is to publish something (even if only a descriptive sentence) by everyone in a given class or group. While in some ways an artificially contrived situation, such a procedure recommends itself more than asking only those who already write well to publish. Writing letters to the editor, discussing student work in small groups, submitting manuscripts to nonschool publications, and writing informal letters are only a few ways that imaginative teachers can extend the audience of the student writer.

While the desire to communicate with others is crucial, motivation also depends on a dynamic classroom atmosphere that encourages new ideas, controversies, and opinions. These cannot be snatched from the air; it is the teacher's function to create out of reading and class discussion a situation in which such an atmosphere develops.

The Precomposition Process

More often than not the teaching of composition is done negatively—after the fact. The student completes a written assignment, turns it in, and then it is corrected by the teacher. "Instruction" under such a procedure takes place when the student reads the written comments on his paper. It is not surprising that under such circumstances most students glance at the grade, ignore the profusion of red marks, and file the paper in a wastebasket. The problem hinges on the unvoiced assumption that somehow a student knows how to write and the teacher's job is to show the student what he did wrong. The assumption is as faulty as its resultant practice. Virtually all of the promising programs in composition stress more positive procedure, the precomposition process. Theory on such a process is not complete. Nevertheless, classroom practices which place the student in a situation in which he wishes to write and which then supply him with the tools and techniques to handle the written assignment do seem to produce better writing.

The precomposition process goes well beyond the selection of a subject, for students at this stage must find not only a general purpose for communicating but also a special purpose for writing about a particular subject. In a broad sense the writer's purpose should be a discovery which he wishes to impart to others. In a narrower view he will find it necessary to make a choice among several possibilities of order and style which will be the formal expression of his purpose. He may elect a narrative or expository solution and a particular mode of either of these types. His choice will determine such matters as content, structure, development, style, and levels of usage. But the student needs to know what these possibilities are *before* he writes. It is at this point that the guidance of a well-trained, sensitive teacher is most crucial.

Rhetoric and Linguistics

Professional interest in rhetoric is reflected in the titles of such recent NCTE publications as *Toward a New Rhetoric, Very Much Like a Whale—A Report on Rhetoric, A Generative Rhetoric of the Paragraph,* and *Rhetoric and School Programs.* While there is considerable academic discussion concerning the boundaries that constitute "rhetoric" and the value of the "old" rhetoric versus the "new" rhetoric, there is general agreement on the relevance of rhetorical concepts to composition programs. Minus its recent embellishments, the term *rhetoric* still has at its core the Aristotelian definition of the ways "to convince or persuade an audience to think in a certain way and act in a certain way."

The teaching of rhetoric as the art of persuasion is concerned with such topics as usage, audience, persuasive logic, and the psychological effect of language. The "new" rhetoric that is now influencing an increasing number of secondary school programs has extended rhetoric to include new knowledge from such diverse disciplines as semantics, psychology, anthropology and linguistics.

Perhaps the richest current discussion of composition under the title "rhetoric" takes place on what seems at first examination to be merely the matter of order. The word *generative,* widely used to describe new work in grammar, has been taken over from grammar and applied to the sentence and the paragraph; perhaps this new use of the term results from the feeling that as generative grammar seems closest to the psychological process of sentence formation, so a generative rhetoric is closest to the creative process. The discussion of order is conducted from several approaches and examines the art of composition, largely by inductive examinations of recent models. Under the guidance of the teacher, the student can discover the principles operating in models of writing, learn the possibilities of order available to him, and have a structured outline before he begins writing. What emerges from this approach is a body of principles, not prescriptions, which the student may use creatively to generate sentences and paragraphs to suit best his own purpose in informing, persuading or moving his reader.

In the studies and discussion of composition, new grammar has supplied a principle, and it has been recently recognized as a vital element in the art of writing. While few in the profession now suggest that teaching traditional school grammar will in itself improve writing, there is guarded optimism and some support for the assumption that linguistics—structural and generative—can lead to the improvement of writing sentences and paragraphs. At the very least, there is hope that one contribution of language study is to make students conscious of alternatives that exist in writing.

Leading the way in developing composition programs based on current thinking in linguistics are several of the Curriculum

Study Centers described in the paper in this symposium titled "National English Projects and Curriculum Change." Administrators and teachers interested in each composition program would do well to study the material prepared by Study Centers such as those at the University of Oregon, Northwestern University, and the University of Nebraska.

New Professional Attitude

Many factors have contributed to the new professional attitude of teachers toward teaching composition. A growing number of teachers have been stimulated by NDEA Institutes, by workshops, college courses, and professional conferences on composition, by the work of Curriculum Study Centers, and by the growing literature in the field. This attitude, however, can survive only under classroom conditions that make better composition teaching possible.

NCTE has advocated since 1956 that classes in English average no more than 25 students and that the English teacher be assigned no more than four classes a day. Admittedly, acceptance of such a recommendation by administrators and school boards may not in itself produce dramatic change in student writing. But it will produce conditions under which effective teaching of English, and particularly composition, can take place. Regular individual conferences, careful and complete evaluation of papers, appropriate provisions for revision, and development of individualized approaches are basic to a good composition program. But no one can seriously expect such a program to exist when a teacher sees 150 to 175 students daily.

One experimental program familiar to many administrators is the NEA-Dean Langmuir Project on Improving Written Composition.[4] Although the nine school districts participating in this project reduced teacher load only to between 120 and 150 students, professional conditions were greatly improved. English teachers were assigned one lay reader and an alternate, double periods for composition were provided once every other week, and teachers participating were relieved of some nonprofessional school work, which enabled them to have personal conferences with students. Studies such as this do much to improve working conditions. But much of the hope in these studies is based on the correction of the finished work of students, using paraprofessionals to assist teachers in this task. In general they fail to emphasize the central issues of precomposition and related instruction in linguistics and rhetoric. As a result, most of their promise for improved composition hangs on the debatable assumption that improvement in composition stems from close correction of finished composition.

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[4] Arno Jewett and Charles E. Bish, editors. *Improving English Composition.* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1965.

The occasional use of double periods and the scheduling of personal conferences with students used by the NEA-Dean Langmuir Project are two helpful ways of extending concentration on the writing process. In addition, English classrooms equipped with classroom libraries and reference books, tables rather than small desk tops, overhead projectors for showing models and student work to classes, and facilities for the publication of student work can also help to improve the conditions under which composition is taught.

In the final analysis, the burden of helping students to write well extends beyond the perimeters of the English classroom. Although thankfully we have passed through an era in education that decreed that "Every teacher is a teacher of English," it is, nevertheless, only through the expectations of and rewards for clear, precise writing by all other school departments that we can make major advances in teaching composition. Nothing can hurt the efforts of an English composition program more than for students to realize that careful attention to writing is the exclusive domain of the English class. Students will know that writing *is* important when teachers in other subject areas refuse to accept hastily and poorly written assignments, saying, "I'm sorry but this is simply not acceptable writing; would you please try rewriting it."

"A deeply felt conviction, however eccentric, is justification enough for a substitute assignment for that [sincerely objecting] student. But surely it is not justification enough for a major revision in the curriculum."

Book Selection and Censorship

ROBERT F. HOGAN

FINDING gaps between the school and the society outside the school is neither novel nor surprising. More often than not, new needs and social forces are first felt on the edges of society. The school, however, is unlikely to stray far from the center of society's gravity, by reason of the local authority which governs the school and measures out its principal support and of teacher recruitment and retention practices. Perhaps this is why impatient architects of recent manpower training programs and youth camps often prefer to operate outside the educational establishment.

We can understand and accept gaps between school and society as a fact of educational life. But we cannot defend taking the same acceptant position when the gaps are within the school itself, when one element of the school draws farther and farther from another. This separation we cannot simply shrug off as part of the "educational condition." And in matters of book selection and censorship, we frequently find such disjuncture.

The issue here is not that some schools exist in community climates that militate against liberal book selection, however true that may be. Neither is it the issue that the school, frequently the pawn in power plays among local groups, may think it best to find the least perilous path toward the next bond issue or millage election. (Some schools with scandalously meager

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libraries have also lost such elections.) The gap at issue here is not between the school and some external but impinging aspect of society. Rather, *it is the widening gap between the students and the curriculum, between the content of the curriculum and its own goals.* Gaps like these are not closed or made insignificant simply by our sighing over them or trying to shrug them off.

Except when we state them narrowly as intellectual attainments, the goals of any curriculum rightly include the aim of enabling students both to cope effectively with the world they now live in and to meet successfully the demands of an adult society which will soon test their strength. What kinds of worlds are these? Clearly there are social, political, and ethnic worlds. But for adolescents there is also, if we are to be honest, a sexual world. And given this range of issues in classical and contemporary literature, the English teacher then attempts to involve students in all of these worlds. To do this the teacher must be free to select the most effective materials.

Legality of Book Bans

Of particular concern to the English teacher is the recent action taken by the U.S. Supreme Court to spell out the conditions under which the first sales of books may properly be curtailed. In general a book may be banned if (1) its overall theme and appeal are largely to prurient interests; (2) it describes sexual activities in such degree and detail that it outrages public decency; (3) it possesses *no* redeeming social value. If a book does pass the third test—some redeeming social value—it does not matter whether it can pass the first or the second. It was on this ground that books such as *Fanny Hill* and *Tropic of Cancer* were cleared for open sale and distribution.

Local communities and some states may pass and for a time enforce legislation far more strict than this. Yet each such attempt risks judicial review and ultimately the test of constitutionality spelled out by the Court. Of course, some books now in circulation would fail all these criteria; but it is unlikely that anyone is going to go after all these books, one by one. Apart from the effects of local and temporary police action or the varying effects of voluntary boycotts, an open market for books of all kinds seems assured. And the near edge of pornography is banked with virtually unchallenged but pervasively sexual material ranging from cosmetic and lingerie ads to bathing styles to illustrations in "magazines for men."

Whether exposure to sexually oriented materials and, particularly, to salacious books is harmful remains a moot question. A long Puritan tradition and some expert opinion suggest that it is harmful, but other expert opinion and perhaps more evidence say it is not. (For a detailed discussion of this issue, see *Obscenity, the Law, and the English Teacher.*[1])

Granting for the moment that, in the absence of definitive evidence, the administrator must consider the possibility of harm to some students, what position should he take? What alternatives are open to him? Of these alternatives, which is the wisest one? And, for whatever validity resides in analogies, what actions have administrators taken in roughly comparable situations in the past?

Principal's Alternatives

At least in theory, three alternatives present themselves:

- First, the principal may operate from the most conservative base and permit as basic or collateral text, as library acquisition, or as permissible outside reading nothing that has been challenged. The English curriculum then not only will offend no one in the community; very likely it will excite none of the students and in the long run will encourage the formation of a faculty who prefer an unexciting curriculum.
- Or the principal may neither respond to nor permit any restriction, internal or external, on the individual teacher's selection of texts and collateral reading—perhaps only a theoretical possibility, but possible nevertheless.
- Finally, he may set a climate that directs the staff to devise a program which, while it respects the student's option not to read a book to which he and his parents object on sincerely moral grounds, takes into continuing account that adolescents are maturing sexually as well as intellectually, and that outside of school they are barraged on all sides by sexually oriented materials.

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[1] John Frank and Robert F. Hogan. *Obscenity, the Law, and the English Teacher.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Any realistic discussion of these alternatives will concentrate on the first and third alternatives. No one is going to argue intelligently for long about the unrestricted right of teachers at large to assign any kind of reading they choose, including hard-core pornography. But many will argue—and intelligently—that fear of this possibility has driven some principals too far in the direction of the first and most restrictive alternative.

In at least two other areas schools have recognized the possibility of harm to students and have taken vigorous action. Admittedly, in neither instance has the setting been so laced with value judgments and conflicts. Yet this freedom from clouding tensions may point, in the fashion of a controlled laboratory experiment, to productive programs outside the laboratory.

First, it has long been recognized that untutored teen-age drivers are a menace to themselves and to others. Second, it has been recently shown that the level of physical attainment for many students has been well below desirable and normally achievable levels, leaving them weakened and less agile than they should be, far more susceptible to injury and other physical harm. What was the response to these two "clear and present dangers"? The simplest solution would have been to restrict the physical education curriculum and the athletics program and thus reduce to a minimum the possibility of injury, on the school campus at least; and to forbid adolescents to drive cars to and from school. The wreckage in human beings and cars would have mounted, but the schools would have been "in the clear."

The best administrators, of course, saw that neither happened. They responded by stepping up the physical education program and by exerting greater efforts to involve more students in a varied athletics program. And, despite the continuing criticism about "frills," programs in driver education and driver training were instituted or expanded. Schools faced these challenges with vigor and with imagination. They did not settle for playing safe.

Sexually Oriented Materials

If we genuinely believe that the maturing but not yet mature mind is possibly in some danger from sexually oriented materials and outrightly pornographic materials, what are we doing about this? Nationally, our first—not brave, but perhaps understandable—urge has been to purify the curriculum. Part of our effort has stemmed from an understandable impulse to make clear that the school as an institution does not condone the exaggerated interest that the larger society demonstrates in sex. But part, too, has been to make sure our hands are clean. So, one by one, books have been removed from library shelves, stricken from required or suggested reading lists, eliminated from the supply of collateral reading in the textbook room: *Catcher in the Rye, A Bell for Adano, To Kill a Mockingbird, Brave New World, 1984, Grapes of Wrath.* Among the books so banished or never allowed admission in the first place are works by some of our best writers—National Book Award winners, Pulitzer Prize winners, Nobel Prize winners.

Even so, it is less useful to condemn the conservative position than to evaluate it. A principal may argue thus: "I don't care if he did win a Pulitzer Prize; this is a dirty book and I don't think young adolescents should read it." This writer thinks that position is usually wrongheaded, but that is not the issue right here. The real issue is how effective is the banishment. If the book is removed from the school library and the textbook room, how dead is it? Publishers are reluctant for a variety of reasons to release sales figures for specific books. But, knowing that the information was to be used in an article on censorship, certain publishing firms released sales figures on some of the most widely controversial books in the curriculum. Here are their reports on sales as of January 1966 of eight books frequently attacked:

> Harper & Row estimates that close to 2,500,000 copies of *Brave New World* are now in circulation. For *The Ugly American,* W.W. Norton cites sales of 398,000 in cloth edition; Fawcett, nearly 3,500,000 copies of the same book in paperback, and W.W. Norton has since brought out its own paperback edition. Random House reports that *A Bell for Adano* sold more than 175,000 copies through fall 1965. Viking Press states for *The Grapes of Wrath* continuing sales of 5,000 to 6,000 copies per year of the original Viking trade edition, now 25 years in print, plus additional sales of 500,000 copies per year of the Bantam paperback edition. New American Library published *1984* in two editions, one of which has sold 2,079,439 copies in 23 different printings; the other 2,001,506 copies in 11 printings, for a combined total of 4,080,945 copies.

One of the newest books to be singled out by censors is Harper Lee's *To Kill a Mockingbird,* which as of winter 1965, according to J.B. Lippincott Company, had sold 263,909 copies, with another 11,792,200 copies distributed through book clubs and other sources than the publisher directly. A book which students discovered virtually on their own and which has never really made its way into the curriculum is *Catch-22*: Simon and Schuster has sold 40,000 copies in hardback and relays from Dell, the publisher of the paperback edition, a total sales figure of over 1,750,000. Perhaps the most enduring target of the censor and the favorite of the adolescent is *Catcher in the Rye. Time* magazine has reported that sales in all editions are close to 250,000 copies annually since publication 15 years ago, for a total of 3,750,000 copies.

Effects of Book Banning

If the purpose of the bans is, in complete if misguided sincerity, to protect the child from the book, how effective have they been? It is hypothetical to argue that public banning adds directly to the sales of books, especially books such as these, excellent books which would sell in their own right. But if banning has not promoted the sales of these books, it would be difficult to prove that it has reduced them. Anyone who is really convinced that these books will harm students has a lot to worry about.

It is not enough to say that book banning has not been effective. Even if it has not had the effect intended, nothing so widespread can be without some outcome. One obvious effect lies in the data revealed in the National Study of High School English Programs.[2] In schools carefully chosen from among those known to graduate consistently outstanding English students, the high school library ranks behind the public library and the home library as the source of interesting voluntary reading. Drawing on an earlier study by Robert S. Whitman, the designers of the National Study selected the 35 titles cited most often by outstanding high school graduates over the past four years as providing their most moving, significant reading experience in high school. Of these, the book most frequently cited by students, *Catcher in the Rye,* was found in only half of the libraries, the sixth-ranking book, *Atlas Shrugged,* in only 12 percent of the school libraries.

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[2] James R. Squire and Roger K. Applebee. *A Study of English Programs in Selected High Schools that Consistently Graduate Outstanding Students in English.* Cooperative Research Report No. 1994. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1966.

A comparable study of English programs for slow learners and disadvantaged pupils has not been done. Yet one continuing phenomenon must continue to haunt any educator who cares. Consistently, these students score low on standardized reading tests and often fail to "comprehend" the simplest books in the curriculum. Yet at the legal age—usually 16 and often with a "measured" reading age of 11 or 12—they study a sophisticated and technical pamphlet about driving laws and regulations and pass an equally sophisticated written examination on these laws. The next day they return to school and to the curriculum, and sink to their usual level of performance. For the bright, the slow, and the disadvantaged—and in all likelihood for the average, too—the gap between the curriculum and the student widens almost beyond bridging. If the major offering in tenth-grade English is *Silas Marner* and their free choice is *Brave New World,* the gap is at least impressive.

How does the principal then protect his school against foolish risks and at the same time insure a program that will leave students enriched rather than impoverished? No one has found a panacea yet, but that has not prevented schools from taking intelligent and promising measures.

Framing a Policy

The first step is the framing of a clear, intelligent policy on book selection and its adoption by the Board of Education. In the setting of the policy as well as in its presentation to the Board of Education the principal plays a particularly sensitive role. He knows, and many teachers do not, the legal framework for adopting texts, selecting collateral reading books, and acquiring library books. Yet, for the English program at least, it is the teachers who will use the books who ought also to be principally responsible for drawing up the statement. Teachers who are to be entrusted with the teaching of literature to children ought to carry the responsibility for stating the principles on which the literature will be selected. A detailed discussion of such a policy is available in *The Students' Right to Read.*[3]

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[3] Edward Gordon *et al. The Students' Right to Read.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1962.

Whatever form such a policy statement takes, certain principles should be reflected:

- Texts and library books are chosen principally by those professional staff members who will use them.
- Clear procedures are provided in the event that a text or a library book is challenged.
- Those who make the selection initially will be involved in meeting the challenge.
- No one will share in the final disposition who has not read the book challenged—the whole book, not just the excerpts which are alleged to be offensive.

At the same time, the policy ought to respect the rights of the individual parent and student. It ought to guarantee that no child has to read a book to which he and his parents object on principle. Our agony comes in part because the typical institutional response to the individual problem is the establishment of a new policy. If one teacher unwittingly takes the principal's reserved parking space, it is often the occasion for a school-wide memorandum; or, if three or four staff members regularly come late to work, the result sometimes is only a candid conference with the three or four, but more likely the occasion for installing a time clock for everyone. So it is with the books. A deeply felt conviction, however eccentric, is justification enough for a substitute assignment for that student. But surely it is not justification enough for a major revision in the curriculum.

The principal's role, it has already been noted, is a sensitive one. Whether the policy statement is unduly restrictive, loose and vague, or sanely liberal and workable will depend on the specific charge he puts to his faculty and the climate he sets up in putting this charge. Execution of the policy and the actions of teachers and librarians after a challenge will depend almost wholly on the support the principal gives to it.

A second measure involves the principal's role as instructional leader. A comprehensive literature program usually will include some works to be read by all students, but it will range more broadly than this. If one purpose of the literature program is to build lifetime reading habits, it will probably rely less on "restrictive" or "required" reading lists as a guide to independent reading and more on "suggested" reading lists. Beyond this—

and here at once is the riskiest, yet the most fundamental principle of all—it will insure that the student can talk with a sensitive teacher or librarian about *any* book he has read on his own.

Three-Pronged Program

It is inconceivable to me that any harm could come to a student from reading, say, *1984*. But if, with this or any other book, harm were possible for a particular student, how much more danger is there if the reading is secretive and the student left entirely on his own to brood about it and probably to misinterpret what he has read? The principal who looks for a three-pronged literature program—*required texts, suggested supplementary titles,* and *a broadly ranging individual reading program*—is likely to find one or to stimulate an English faculty to creation of one.

No principal will go far in a new direction without support from the community; few will even try it. In this instance, it is not simply a matter of parent education: not all the book lovers are employees of the school system. Whether the parents' organization is the medium of communication and support depends in part on the strength and size of the local chapter. As a first step, a small number of parents, roughly analogous to the Friends of Libraries committees already at work in some communities, probably would suffice. The purpose, as in most sound public relations programs, is to make friends when we do not need them so that we will have them when we do. Often such committees will meet in informal study groups to discuss the very books which have been added to the curriculum or the library and which might be challenged.

A book challenge is by its nature a threat to the intellectual stake of the community; it is right and sensible that the community should share with the schools the defense of that stake. And if, apart from any challenge, the matter of book selection and censorship is to appear on the agenda for a larger parent meeting, how much more effective would it be if that discussion were led in part by parents?

Finally, there are staff relationships—teacher to teacher, teacher to librarian, and both to administrators. Except where team teaching really works, teaching is by its nature a solitary act. Because of the schedule of the school day, the librarian plays an equally solitary role. And from our solitary lives stems much of our grief. Not all the censors are outside the school. There are librarians who, partly because of the role they conceive for themselves and partly because of the knowledge that they will have to stand alone if challenged, refuse to order certain works of literature because, however artistically, they deal with "ugly" themes. And there are librarians who, under pressure, will order a standard illustrated history of art but will remove pictures of nude statues before shelving the book.

Role of the English Department

There are English departments which function more as fiscal or quartermaster units than as instructional teams. They give their energy to rotating books, not to selecting or even discussing them. At the same time it is precisely this climate that impels the eager young teacher, fresh from college, to require a book that good counsel would advise against; and in this solitary climate, good counsel is nowhere to be had.

If an English department reviews and revises its required texts and its collateral reading lists *as a department,* the texts and the lists will range as variously as the collective wisdom of the department permits and the choices will reflect the collective strength of the department. We are not talking here about a chairman's fiat, but consensus. And if the librarian regularly meets with teachers of the department to discuss their common stake in library holdings and new acquisitions, he taps their strength in his role and adds his stature to theirs. Here is an arena for good counsel and for collective wisdom. Here, if anywhere, is where sound textbook selections will be made and where the literature program will gain continually in breadth and depth.

Those who took part in the National Study of High School English Programs found the departmental meetings at times the most exciting and at times the most depressing events of the school visits. In some there was solid rapport, open dialogue, exciting exchange of ideas. In at least some, the school visit at midyear was the occasion for the first department meeting of the year.

Apart from helping to see that departments meet with some regularity and occasionally attending such meetings, the principal can do much to set the climate needed by the charge he puts to the chairman and the department, by the business that he makes clear the department is expected to carry on: textbook rotation (but only if it cannot be handled in a bulletin); selecting and handling works of literature in classrooms; designing and conducting independent reading programs; and planning for and using classroom libraries, the intimate connection between the school library and the English curriculum.

"Education for the disadvantaged means chiefly English *for the disadvantaged, since our language is central to all other aspects of our culture."*

English Programs for the Disadvantaged

RICHARD CORBIN

By now most of us who have the means and the power to effect a change have heard or read the clichés growing out of the recent discovery of the "disadvantaged." Sheltered as some of our schools are, we know that out there in the larger world ". . . submerged in the generalization 'slow learners' is a large and definable group, newly discovered in a sense, and known by various labels—the 'culturally different,' the 'educationally deprived,' the 'underprivileged,' or more commonly of late the 'disadvantaged.' These are the children from America's slums, both rural and urban. These are Puerto Ricans, migrant whites from Appalachia and other economically depressed areas, Mexican 'wetbacks,' and American Indians; but mostly they are Negroes.

"Whatever the racial or ethnic background of these disadvantaged, their circumstances are much the same. They come from families that exist on annual incomes that fall below the established national minimum subsistence level, that have known little or no schooling, that have no job security. More than half have only one parent (generally the mother), and many have never known either parent. They come from families who seldom aspire or, when they do, aspire unrealistically, who are

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often idle because few jobs are open to them. They are the people who exist—one can hardly say 'live'—on the wretched rim of an otherwise affluent world. And they number not fewer than one quarter of our total national population."[1]

The moment we begin talking or thinking about disadvantaged people, we run the risk of seeing them only in the abstract. "A slum is a slum," we reason with semantic naiveté, "and what is true of one slum dweller is true of them all." Thus when we are moved to action by such broad directives from above as "Away with poverty," "Down with ghetto housing," "Up with education," we are more likely to be guided by myths, legends, and other assorted hearsay than by any real and first-hand understanding of the human condition involved.

Since most of us have had no more direct experience with the slum than what we have read in *Oliver Twist,* seen on our television screens in "East Side, West Side," or observed fleetingly from the family car, lost and speeding through that "awful section at the other end of town," this is perhaps not at all surprising. This is, perhaps, one main reason why we grow impatient because the nation's war upon poverty and ignorance seems to yield so little measurable progress. That is why we are so taken aback when, after the torrent of words and the sizable-seeming appropriations we have expended on their behalf, the disadvantaged in Watts, in Cleveland, in Bedford-Stuyvesant grow angrier and more violent. Some of the people who make up our subculture, it seems, are impatient too.

Education for the disadvantaged means chiefly *English* for the disadvantaged, since our language is central to all other aspects of our culture. Without the ability to speak, read, and to some extent write the standard dialect, the individual, whatever his inherent but unrealized intelligence, can never hope to enjoy vocational success or social acceptance. Without some involvement with our literature, he has small chance of lighting the fires of his imagination or gauging and pushing out toward the horizons of his humanity.

Admitting the central importance of English in any program designed bring the disadvantaged up even as far as a reasonable level of literacy, we run head on into other problems: Where will we get effective teachers for the ghetto schools? Where will we get engaging materials for the teachers to use? Indeed, in some areas, where will we get the schools?

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[1] Richard Corbin. "Literacy, Literature, and the Disadvantaged," in *Language Programs for the Disadvantged.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965. p. 6.

Some attempt to solve the first problem has been made by the government in establishing over a hundred NDEA summer institutes for training teachers for disadvantaged schools. There is only spotty evidence as yet as to how much success the program is achieving. Increasingly, urban colleges are concerning themselves with the problem, both with research and in their teacher training programs, as they recognize both the immediacy of the condition and the correlative fact that most of their teacher graduates will be operating schools where four-letter words carry more weight than Elizabethan poetry. Actually the slum school is no recent invention, but the notion that it requires new methods of teaching and relevant materials is.

Conventionally, the success of the slum-school teacher has been measured by her ability to enforce the formula "Shut up and sit down!" Thus the child was deprived at once of his best opportunity to experiment with and practice the dialect that he needed, and that we sincerely (what irony!) wanted him to have, and that was his best link to the humane tradition. It is not easy for a middle-class teacher to change in midstream, reject all her training, and let children talk freely in a dialect she has never bothered to learn. Even more difficult is it for her to accept the fact that these children can discuss meaningfully the fundamental issues of life as they experience them and can write eloquently about those issues within the bounds of their dialect, provided she controls her fixation on "correctness" and in her passion to "improve" them bides her time. There are notable exceptions, but experience indicates in the main that we are most likely to overcome this obstacle in the initial orientation and training of our teacher trainees.

Providing teachers with usable materials for training in speaking, reading, and writing is also a puzzling nut to crack. While a number of individual teachers and school systems about the country have attempted to prepare such materials on their own, only one of the original NDEA Curriculum Development Centers —the Gateway English Project at Hunter College of the City University of New York—addressed itself to the problem, and specifically to teaching reading at grades 7, 8, and 9. The Gateway English staff departed radically from other programs in its belief that the skill of reading could be developed most successfully within a total language arts program. It made the following assumptions:[2]

1. All youngsters, whether reading on grade level or one or two years below it, will respond to good literature which expresses problems and ideas of relevance to them as well as to truths (whether set in realistic framework or in myth and legend) which they recognize as valid.
2. Increased interest in what is read will lead to desire for increased skills.
3. If encouraged to express themselves, students will welcome opportunities to do so, orally and in writing.
4. Emphasis on *correctness* may well be deferred until students are expressing themselves with directness, honesty, and a real desire to communicate their ideas to others both in speech and writing.

Early results from the experimental use of the materials for two years in six Harlem junior high school classes and for one year in classes in Miami and San Diego bear out the soundness of these assumptions. As important as the reading materials themselves—ranging from Dick Gregory and *Roosevelt Grady* to W.H. Auden and Benjamin Franklin—is the *Teacher's Manual* that tries in every way possible to nudge the teacher, gently but firmly, away from his traditional classroom practices toward more positive and inductive methods. And to support the teacher in important oral aspects of the program, recordings by well-known singers and readers have been taped for simultaneous use with the printed text.

The seventh grade is admittedly at least six years too late for such a program, but presumably other programs will be developed on the same pattern for the earlier school years. Indeed, some programs, like the *Bank Street Readers,* are already on the market. Unfortunately, the potential demand for such materials is so great and the vacuum has been so complete that some publishers have shown more haste than wisdom, to put it charitably, in offering materials which show little evidence of worth or validity.

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[2] *Gateway English: A Literature and Language Arts Program. Teacher's Manual.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1966. p. 2.

All of these projects are pioneers, of course, and are important, but the real work lies in the future, in the development of complete programs that will carry the disadvantaged child from his preschool years through college and finally will join him securely with the mainstream of our culture. Even such promising programs as Gateway English will yield little permanent benefit if the child at grade 9 is to be dropped back into the meaningless routine and atmosphere of failure characteristic of the traditional classroom in the slum school.

The distressing consequences of discontinuity are underscored by the government's recent study of Project Head Start, reported unofficially in an October 1966 issue of the *New York Times:*

> ... although the speech, work and listening habits of Head Start children were markedly better at the beginning of the kindergarten year, there were no measurable differences after six months. . . . Finally, in terms of strictly educational achievements, no significant differences could be found between the two groups after six months of kindergarten.

Though discouraging, such negative evidence does not suggest that we scrap Head Start or any other section of the bridge that we are determined to build between the sub-islands and the mainland of our culture. It does suggest that we need to work faster and harder to complete the structure that will finally make possible the escape of these disadvantaged people who for so long have dwelt miserably in the damp, cold, cockroach- and rat-infested, poemless slum. Not only teachers of English in particular, but all teachers and administrators as well, have a prime and inescapable responsibility in this building.

Edwin Markham was looking at a stoop-shouldered, illiterate French peasant in a painting when he asked the questions:

When will we "straighten up that shape?"
When "touch it again with immortality?"
How give back to it "the upward looking and the light,
  rebuild in it the music and the dream?"

Today in every city across our land we are looking at the fact itself, and Markham's questions ring no less valid and challenging than they did more than half a century ago.

"Neither English teachers, administrators, nor the lay public have been uniformly satisfied with the results of secondary English instruction. . . . Better prepared teachers . . . are obviously needed to combat such justifiable dissatisfaction."

Teacher Preparation

J. N. Hook

If teachers are not intimately familiar with what is happening to the English curriculum of the junior and senior high school, curricular innovations cannot be satisfactorily effected. Both college and in-service programs are still far from adequate, but the signs of progress are encouraging. What, then, is being done to equip both prospective and experienced teachers to give instruction in the developing programs?

In this article, I shall first review the causes of change, then look at what is new in preparatory programs, and finally examine briefly the improvement still needed.

The Forces of Change

Dissatisfaction with the status quo always supplies a spur toward progress. Happiness or complacency retards change. Neither English teachers, administrators, nor the lay public have been uniformly satisfied with the results of secondary English instruction. Some of the complaints about the results have been superficial: "My secretary never knows how many *c*'s and *m*'s are in accommodate," or "High school graduates don't know the difference between *like* and *as*." Others have been more profound: Many graduates never read a book after graduation; many cannot organize their thoughts coherently; many have only

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a thin awareness of how the English language works; many are handicapped in their life's work because of insufficient command of the language.

Better prepared teachers, as well as better materials and better curricular planning, are obviously needed to combat such justifiable dissatisfaction. Two NCTE volumes, published a few years ago, offered for the first time comprehensive evidence of many teachers' poverty of preparation. *The National Interest and the Teaching of English* (1961) showed, for example, that only 17.7 percent of the colleges in 1960 required of prospective English teachers a course in modern English grammar, that only 41 percent required a course in advanced composition, that only 51.5 percent required a course in methods of teaching English, and that in 16 states no more than 12 semester hours in English was required of a teacher who would go into the secondary schools to teach this complex subject.

The National Interest and the Continuing Education of Teachers of English (1964) reported, along with many other statistics, that 30.4 percent of experienced English teachers had not taken a course in English for more than 10 years and that "89.9 percent of secondary teachers of English express interest in studying intermediate or advanced composition, yet college opportunities to receive this training are woefully inadequate."

It also stated that, besides composition, large numbers of teachers felt the need for advanced study in (a) methods of teaching English, (b) literature, including literature for adolescents, (c) the teaching of reading, (d) structural or generative grammar, and (e) curriculum development. Furthermore, in small schools 70 percent of the teachers never had available the services of a consultant, and the majority of the nation's English teachers rarely or never participated in meetings of professional English groups.

Several national developments have been and are combating such deplorable weaknesses in preservice and in-service preparation as those revealed by the NCTE studies. Most of these forces of change are internal, resulting from the work of English specialists themselves; others are external.

1. *Scholarly research in English.* In 1967 the scholars, and therefore eventually the students, know much more than they did in 1947 about the English language, about rhetoric, and about literature. A precise

answer to the possibly unanswerable question "What is English?" is still being sought, and the search has taken some scholars apparently far afield into psychology, anthropology, sociology, and even the biological and physical sciences. The complexities of the subject "English" grow ever more apparent, but scholars work also to find in the complicated web some strands of structure that will have special significance for teaching.

2. *Scholarly research in education.* Significant studies of the learning process, of special categories of students such as the disadvantaged, of the teaching of reading and of curriculum development, and of the relationships between thinking and expression—these are illustrative of the work being done here.

3. *Growing interest of college English departments.* Slowly professors of English have become aware of their significant role in preparing secondary school teachers. For example, the Modern Language Association of America, which once stayed severely aloof from involvement with the secondary schools, now strives actively to engage professors in improvement of teacher preparation. For another example, departments of English and of education are in many places cooperating closely in developing programs for teacher education, and professors of English often share the work in the methods courses and other aspects of the programs.

4. *Educational media.* Media such as paperback books, educational television, programed instruction, and projection devices make it easier for an earnest teacher to keep informed of current developments.

5. *Professional organizations.* Increases in both professional zeal and professional awareness are reflected in the growth of specialized organizations. For example, the NCTE's membership and subscription list has grown from 19,000 in 1953 to 113,000 in 1966. Within NCTE, the Conference on English Education, whose members are for the most part teachers of teachers, enrolled 873 members and subscribers in the first year of its official existence (1964-65). These persons, who have a key role in teacher preparation, are hard-working, devoted, and sometimes brilliant. A CEE convention reveals a cauldron of information and ideas.

6. *Nonfederal programs.* Foundations have sponsored a number of significant programs such as those in high school composition, in classroom organization, and in the use of media. The Commission on English of the College Entrance Examination Board was one of the pioneers in offering institutes for experienced English teachers.

7. *Federal programs.* Project English (now the USOE English Program) sponsors pure and applied research, centers for curriculum

development, and centers for demonstration. Other federal projects that encourage change include the fellowship programs for experienced and inexperienced teachers, and the far-flung program of summer institutes.

8. *Local school districts.* Local districts, often employing the consultative services of college professors, offer ever-increasing opportunities for in-service education through local workshops, sabbatical leaves, and encouragement of attendance at professional meetings, institutes, and summer sessions. The encouragement often includes financial inducements of various kinds: released time with pay, payment of tuition, reimbursement of travel expenses, and part or full salary during sabbaticals.

9. *Systematic study of teacher preparation.* Individual colleges and universities are thoughtfully revamping their own programs, sometimes assisted by modification of state requirements. The NCTE, MLA, and National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification are concluding a series of nationwide conferences designed to find a consensus regarding ideal preparation of elementary and secondary English teachers. In Illinois a five-year pilot project for the nation, involving 20 Illinois colleges and universities, is demonstrating ways to effect systematic curricular change in preparatory programs.

What's New in the New Preparatory Programs?

As a result of such forces for change as have been described, the colleges and universities are altering, sometimes considerably, the programs they require of prospective English teachers.

Take the study of the English language as one example. While in 1960 fewer than a fifth of future English teachers were required to take work in modern grammar, today probably half or more of the colleges have such a requirement and these courses in modern grammar customarily acquaint the prospective teacher with more than a single variety of grammar. In addition, since a thorough knowledge of the language involves much more than grammar, an increasing number of colleges offer instruction in the history of the language, usage, semantics, lexicology, dialectology, advanced linguistics, psycholinguistics, and related fields. The teacher with the wide and deep understanding of language implied by such offerings should be able to offer rich English language courses rather than the impoverished and repetitious ones in grammatical terminology and diagraming that still exist in too many schools.

In composition, experience beyond the college freshman year is now almost a nationwide requirement for the teacher-in-training. Some colleges require advanced exposition, some creative writing, some a special teacher-oriented composition course that may include a unit on evaluation of student writing, and some colleges require a course in rhetorical theory. These courses are likely to incorporate the principles of classical rhetoric and also the exciting new discoveries of such rhetoricians as Kenneth Burke, Kellogg Hunt, Francis Christensen, and Father Daniel Fogarty.

College emphasis on the study of literature has moved in the past two or three decades from historical orientation to intensive study of the literary work itself, with but slight attention to the dates, sources, influences, and literary trends that once served as focal points. It is possible that colleges have moved too far in this direction and that a blend of the historical and the explicatory should be sought, as indeed it is in the classes of many superb teachers and professors.

College personnel responsible for preparatory programs now realize more clearly that, although all secondary teachers have a part in improving students' reading and should be equipped for the task, the role of English teachers in this regard is especially important. Therefore, more and more preparatory programs for English teachers include at least one course in the teaching of reading. As a rule, such courses touch upon remedial reading but stress developmental reading, on the ground that remediation often requires the services of a reading expert but that developmental reading skills can generally be satisfactorily taught in the regular classroom.

Increasingly, colleges are preparing English teachers for special tasks. For example, a number of them now offer courses in the teaching of English as a second language, so that those teachers who face classes of Puerto Ricans, Mexicans, or others whose native language is not English will be able to cope with their special problems. Likewise, some colleges make available special courses or segments of courses in English for slow learners, for the academically talented, or for the culturally disadvantaged.

In methods courses much experimentation is going on. Some such courses use "micro-teaching," with films made of the prospective teacher as he teaches a short lesson to a small group; the films later serve as the basis for discussion and conference. Teachers-to-be are now frequently introduced to the principles of team teaching, programed instruction, the nongraded school, the use of audiovisual equipment, the pros and cons of using lay readers, and other innovations.

Assignment of student teachers is becoming more systematic, so more frequently the prospective teacher has an opportunity to work in a school where his student-teaching experience can be related to his special interests; for example, English as a second language or English for slow learners.

Perhaps the most significant change in preparatory programs, though, lies in the growing emphasis upon the prospective teacher's knowledge of his subject. When state certification regulations for English teachers required only 12 or 16 or 18 semester hours in the subject, many teachers had only a superficial knowledge of English. It is impossible to attain a reasonably good background in literature, language, and composition with so few hours of study. In the past decade or so, however, over half the states have increased the minimum acceptable amount of subject matter preparation. And some now grant certificates based on very intensive concentration in the major field—perhaps 50 or 60 hours of work in that field—with no minor required.

Colleges are realizing, too, that past preparatory programs have been overbalanced in favor of literature and that balance requires considerable work in language and composition as well. Though perhaps it would be unrealistic to stipulate that one third of the courses should be in each area, the trend now appears to be toward about half the English work in literature and a fourth each in English language and in composition.

Fifth-year programs are being more systematically developed. Some of these are for experienced teachers returning for graduate work; others are for liberal arts graduates or other inexperienced persons. Instead of concentrating chiefly on courses in education, many of these programs stress substantial study of English subject matter, supplemented by work in such areas as educational psychology, principles of evaluation, and principles of curriculum construction. Programs for experienced teachers are, as a rule, carefully differentiated from those for the inexperienced. The former usually stress recent developments in the subject matter of English and developments in other pertinent areas such as the psychology of learning; the latter tend to include more courses in education, along with practice teaching or an internship. Master of Arts in Teaching programs for liberal arts graduates have prepared hundreds of teachers, many of whom are among the best in the profession.

School administrators are giving more attention to in-service programs for both experienced and beginning teachers. Preschool workshops are probably the favorite device, supplemented by (1) programs in which an experienced teacher helps a beginner, (2) encouragement to attend professional meetings, (3) establishment of curriculum libraries, (4) in-service workshops during the year, (5) sabbaticals, and (6) encouragement of teacher participation in institutes, fellowship programs, evening or Saturday classes, and summer sessions. Cooperation from colleges and universities, including English departments as well as schools of education, is steadily increasing. Many scholars in the field of English now gladly meet, to the extent that their own time allows, with groups of secondary teachers to discuss developments in their specialties.

What Is Still Needed?

Despite the foregoing changes, still more are needed if each secondary English teacher is to be prepared as well as possible.

1. College English departments need to move more rapidly to correct the imbalance of literature, language, and composition in their teacher preparation programs. They need also to modernize their programs, especially in the study of language.

2. Schools of education need to reexamine their requirements with a view toward increased practicality based upon sound theory. Courses in educational psychology should, for example, draw more heavily upon learning theory and psycholinguistics than most of them do. Practical study of tests and measurements and of curriculum construction might well replace some of the theoretical courses. Particularly needed is early introduction to characteristics of high school children in their great variety. Most prospective English teachers were in upper tracks in their own high school days and have little awareness of what 75 percent of high school students are really like.

3. The relationships between speech and English need to be further explored. Linguists remind us constantly that language is basically spoken and that the written language is derivative. The full implications of this fact have not been developed. Certainly the answer does not lie in requiring more speech courses of the usual kind: public speaking, debate, and the like. Instead, prospective teachers should perhaps study how very small children learn to speak the language, should study the uses of oral practice of sentence patterns, and should perhaps study how very small children learn to speak the language, is made. Cooperative work by linguists, speech experts, and psychologists is essential to answer our unanswered questions here.

4. Since we are living in an age that is increasingly oral/aural, as Marshall McLuhan, Father Walter Ong, and others remind us, beginning teachers of English (and perhaps of other subjects as well) need thorough instruction in the significance and use of media. Such instruction should concern cultural and instructional implications, as well as the mechanical aspects.

5. Serious consideration must be given to a required five-year preparatory program in contrast to the usual four. English is too complex a subject to be mastered in four years while simultaneously all the other requirements for graduation and certification are being met.

6. Secondary school principals can help most in the following ways:
    a. Cooperating with colleges by making many of their classes available for visits by prospective teachers.
    b. Encouraging their best teachers to serve as cooperating (critic) teachers for student teachers.
    c. Strengthening the in-service programs in their own schools, including the use of qualified English supervisors.
    d. Conferring occasionally with nearby colleges and universities to help college authorities understand the strengths and weaknesses of teachers whom they have recently graduated, and urging that colleges strengthen their offerings in subjects in which teachers are unnecessarily deficient.

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"The diversity and range of these [federal] projects demonstrate effectively the lack of any attempt on the part of the federal government to develop or impose a national curriculum in English."

National English Projects and Curriculum Change

MICHAEL F. SHUGRUE

THE one national project which will affect curriculum change in English most significantly for the next decade is the English Program of the U.S. Office of Education. The NDEA Institutes, the National Endowment for the Humanities, the Education Research Information Centers, Project Upward Bound, and the Research and Development Centers and Regional Educational Laboratories further emphasize the important influence of federal projects on the changing English curriculum.

The English Program of the Office of Education, established late in 1961 and originally known as Project English, has supported (1) Curriculum Study Centers directly concerned with building a new English curriculum, (2) Study Centers concentrating on the preparation of teachers, (3) Demonstration Centers focusing on the implementation of new curriculum ideas in the classroom and inevitably doing curriculum research, and (4) individual research projects on such special problems as how disadvantaged urban children learn to read and write. The diversity and range of these projects demonstrate effectively the lack of any attempts on the part of the federal government to develop or impose a national curriculum in English.

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Study Center Achievements

Of the sixteen Curriculum Study Centers developing materials ranging from units to teach English as a second language to sophisticated lessons in transformational grammar and the generative rhetoric of the sentence, those funded earliest naturally have had the greatest initial impact on curriculum change in English.[1] The Study Centers at the University of Nebraska, at Northwestern University, and at the University of Oregon, for example, have already influenced curriculum reform in the United States and abroad.

The Center at the University of Nebraska, directed by Paul Olson and Frank M. Rice, has developed an articulated, sequential curriculum in language, literature, and composition from kindergarten through twelfth grade. Units from the Center, particularly its fine composition lessons, are currently being taught in more than 125 schools. Testing of the units in five pilot school systems in Nebraska, which began in the fall of 1962, has led to wide use throughout that state. In both public and parochial schools in Hawaii and Alaska, selected parts of the curriculum are in regular classroom use. Participants in the summer institutes held at Nebraska, first through the generosity of the Woods Charitable Fund and later under NDEA, are now using Nebraska materials in classrooms in such states as Arkansas, Illinois, Massachusetts, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Virginia, and Texas. Units are also being used in classrooms in Australia and in the American Dependents School in Germany. The effectiveness of the materials, especially with able students, and the wide attention which the Nebraska Study Center has received have led to greater national impact than the work of any other Center.

The Study Center at Northwestern University, directed by Wallace W. Douglas, has focused on teaching composition in grades 7 through 12. Thirty-nine states, Washington, D.C., the Panama Canal Zone, Australia, and Ontario, Canada, are now experimenting with Northwestern's units. Departments of education at Temple University and New York University, and state departments of curriculum in California, Illinois, and Pennsylvania are also using reference sets of the materials to help beginning and in-service teachers learn new techniques for teaching composition to the beginning writer. Northwestern has continued its own units in seven elementary and secondary schools in and near Chicago.

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[1] For status reports on the work of the Centers, see the *Publications of the Modern Language Association* (Sept. 1963, Sept. 1964, and Sept. 1966); see also, Robert A. Bennett, *Summary Progress Report of English Curriculum Study and Demonstration Centers*. Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966.

Over 4,000 students in seven school systems in Oregon and Washington are involved this year in testing the curriculum sequence in language, literature, and composition for grades 7 through 12 that has been developed by the University of Oregon Study Center, where the director is Albert Kitzhaber, a recent president of NCTE. In addition, teachers who have attended NDEA institutes at Oregon are teaching these units, particularly the excellent language program, to more than 1,000 students across the United States. Idaho has instituted special in-service courses to acquaint teachers with the Oregon curriculum. The focus of Oregon's NDEA institute has gradually widened from teachers in its pilot systems to teachers in all parts of the United States. Each institute enables more teachers to introduce, for example, the study of transformational grammar to a greater number of American junior and senior high schools.

Contributions of Other Centers

The impact of the Curriculum Study Centers on school systems has been limited by the limited availability of the materials developed. The first Study Center material to become commercially available was the *Senior High School Curriculum in English for Able College-Bound Students,* developed under the direction of Erwin Steinberg at the Carnegie Institute of Technology and published in 1965.[2] The first units for disadvantaged junior high school students, developed by Marjorie Smiley and the Gateway English Staff at Hunter College in New York, were published by the Macmillan Company in 1966, but too late for 1966 fall classroom use. In November 1966 the University of Nebraska Press[3] brought out the total elementary program of the Nebraska Center, but the Center's elaborate secondary curriculum will not be available for more than a year. The Oregon Curriculum for grades 7 and 8 will not be ready until the fall of 1967, when Holt, Rinehart and Winston plan to bring them out.

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[2] United Business Service Co., 1302 Highland Bldg., Pittsburgh, Pa. 15206.

[3] Nebraska Hall 215, Lincoln, Nebr. 68508.

As these experimental materials become widely available, as they influence the production of other textbooks, and as teachers learn to use them through participation in NDEA institutes, in-service courses, and through regular departmental examination of textbooks, the impact of the Study Centers on the English curriculum will become more and more apparent. In the school year 1966-1967 perhaps no more than two percent of the American elementary and secondary school population will have any direct exposure to Study Center materials. The two percent do, to be sure, consist of more than a million students, but it is evident that the Study Centers will have their greatest influence on the English classroom in the 1970's.

Improved Teacher Preparation

Two of the Study Centers, which have set improvement in teacher preparation as their goals, will affect curriculum change in a different way:

- The Illinois State-Wide Curriculum Study Center in the Preparation of Secondary School English Teachers—ISCPET—directed by J.N. Hook, has brought together 20 colleges and universities in Illinois to evaluate their own curriculum planning for teacher preparation and to undertake research on new approaches to teacher preparation. ISCPET has distributed more than 25,000 copies of its "Qualifications Statement for Teachers," an eye-opening opportunity for classroom teachers to evaluate their own preparation in English and to plan additional study in such important areas as modern linguistics.
- The English Teacher Preparation Study (ETPS), by contrast, is a nationwide effort to write guidelines for both elementary and secondary school teachers of English. This program is sponsored by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Preparation and Certification, the Modern Language Association (MLA), and NCTE. It will assist state certification officers to evaluate institutions and individuals and will help colleges and universities improve their teacher preparation programs. ETPS has distributed more than 10,000 copies of 15 drafts of its guidelines to scholar-teachers, public school officials, certification officers, and other interested individuals for review and comment. The guidelines it recommends

in the fall of 1967 should have tremendous bearing on the way teachers are prepared in English.

Both Centers will lead to improvement in the English curriculum at the secondary levels because they will help produce teachers who have studied modern linguistics and modern rhetorical theories and who can make effective use of expanded school library facilities, new textbooks, and a variety of educational media.

Demonstration Centers

Two of the six Demonstration Centers funded by the Office of Education indicate the kinds of influence these Centers are having on the curriculum. The Center at Syracuse University, where William Sheldon is the director, has produced ten 16 mm. films on *Teaching Reading in Secondary Schools* for use in methods classes and in-service courses. The films are supplemented by work texts and by a *Guide to an In-service Course in Teaching Reading in Secondary Schools,* which describes how to use the films as the core of an in-service program. The Syracuse films focus on how the teacher can develop subject-related skills as a part of his regular instruction in such areas as history and physics as well as in English.[4] Already widely popular, they reinforce a growing realization on the part of English teachers that the development of reading skills must have a place in the English curriculum.

The Center directed by George Hillocks, Jr., at Euclid Central Junior High School outside of Cleveland has conducted a demonstration of a comprehensive program in language, literature, and composition on a schoolwide basis in grades 7 through 9 for average, honors, and remedial students. The program has been demonstrated through conferences, the development of curriculum units which visitors were invited to observe in use, discuss, and carry back to their own classrooms, and through publications. When federal funding ended in 1965, Melvin Robb, former principal of the school, and William Tomko, president of the Euclid Board of Education, encouraged the continuation of this highly successful demonstration program under Michael

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[4] Instructional Communications Center, 121 College Place, Syracuse, N.Y. 13210.

Flanigan. More than 300 teachers from 23 states participated in a special institute in the spring of 1966, supported solely by local funds. This program continues, now under the direction of Charles Rogers.

Individual Projects

Many of the approximately 200 individual research projects funded by the Cooperative Research Branch of the Office of Education will also influence English classroom practices. James R. Squire's *A Study of English Programs in Selected High Schools Which Consistently Educate Outstanding Students in English,* completed in 1966, revealed much about the nature of good high school English departments and suggested ways to improve the staffing, organization, and administration of these departments. Such studies as the current *Undergraduate Programs in English,* being conducted by Thomas Wilcox of the University of Connecticut, will affect the content of the senior high school English curriculum by reflecting what colleges and universities require in English of their entering students.

NDEA Institutes

NDEA institutes in English, established under Title XI of the amended National Defense Education Act, have, in their first two years, contributed significantly to curriculum reform in the schools. In the summer of 1965, some 4,800 teachers attended 105 English institutes; in 1966, nearly 5,300 attended 126 such institutes; in 1967, almost 3,400 will enroll in 95 institutes designed to help teachers update their knowledge of English and their ability to apply what they know in the classroom. Although there is a growing awareness of the need to prepare elementary teachers more thoroughly in English, the first three years of NDEA institutes in English have emphasized programs for teachers of grades 7 through 12. By September 1967, almost 10 percent of all the secondary teachers in the United States will have undergone the recharging experience of an NDEA English institute.

Institute staff members and participants have the opportunity to discuss the premises and methodology of the new English and to examine in detail curriculum units which could improve classroom instruction in the fall. Unquestionably, the NDEA institutes have been the single most influential mode of promoting curriculum change in the last five years.

Other Federal Programs

The National Endowment for the Humanities, created as part of the National Foundation of the Arts and Humanities in the fall of 1965, will also be a force for change in the English curriculum. At its first meeting, the National Council on the Humanities stated its desire to "assist efforts to improve teaching of the humanities, with particular emphasis on assuring that such efforts will have a direct relevance to teachers in school systems." Noting that "curriculum reappraisals and the development of better teaching materials are under way in the humanities, particularly English and social studies," it promised that "the Endowment will encourage a continuing fruitful relationship between the scholars in universities and colleges and teachers in the school systems."

One example of how the Council's goal will be achieved is the grant to assist the MLA Center for Editions of American Authors. Within the next year, the Center will publish authoritative editions of various works by Stephen Crane, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Nathaniel Hawthorne, William Dean Howells, Washington Irving, Henry David Thoreau, Mark Twain, and Walt Whitman. A condition of the grant insures that these texts will receive wide distribution. They should become and, inevitably, will become the standard secondary school texts on these authors.

Because communication is so essential to curriculum change in English, one looks hopefully towards the establishment of an Education Research Information Center in English like the one in the foreign languages currently in operation at MLA. An ERIC in English would make available research reports to curriculum supervisors and classroom teachers through annotated bibliographies and inexpensive reproduction of the documents themselves. Serving as a nationwide curriculum clearinghouse, it would enable teachers and curriculum builders to sift through the mounting number of significant curriculum projects in English.

Other federal programs which will influence the English curriculum include the national program known as Upward Bound, sponsored by the Office of Economic Opportunity. By June 1966, 216 Upward Bound programs involved 20,000 disadvantaged youngsters across the country, mostly in tenth and eleventh grade, but including some students from ninth grade. In 1967 at least the same number will be funded. Most of these programs include work in English to help youngsters communicate more effectively and to improve their chances of benefiting from formal education. To share information about curriculum programs, the staff of Upward Bound gathers project directors twice each year and publishes *Idea Exchange,* a national periodical which reports promising curriculum projects in English and other subjects. From its size alone, it can be inferred that Upward Bound activities will bring many new and useful ideas to the teaching of English to disadvantaged youngsters in urban centers.

One also looks hopefully to the Research and Development Centers and to the 19 Regional Educational Laboratories established under Title IV of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. The Upper Midwest Regional Laboratory, for example, which serves Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin, has financed the demonstration and evaluation of language units prepared by the University of Minnesota Curriculum Study Center and being used in three Minnesota high schools during the current school year. Classroom teachers have visited these schools and participated in conferences which demonstrated and discussed the Minnesota units. The Regional Laboratories, particularly, can introduce the work of the Study Centers to classroom teachers, using the effective models of the earlier Demonstration Centers.

Privately sponsored projects are, of course, numerous. To mention only one will suggest how discussion about the nature of English and the way it should be taught modifies school programs. The result of a month-long conference of British and American scholars at Dartmouth in the summer of 1966 are quickly flowing, through the publication of books, articles, and reports, to school teachers now examining textbooks and building curriculums for the fall of 1968.[5]

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[5] Two reports on the Dartmouth Seminar will be published during 1967. For information, write to the Executive Secretary, NCTE, 508 South Sixth St., Champaign, Ill. 61820. See also Albert Marckwardt's discussion of the Dartmouth Seminar, which follows this article.

Unsolved Problems

Three basic problems must be overcome if the English curriculum is to be radically altered in the next decade: communication, evaluation, and continued research. The English profession needs, first, to find more ways to disseminate information about curriculum projects not only to classroom teachers and curriculum builders, but to school administrators, boards of education, and parents. The reasons for introducing new grammars and new theories of usage, the problems of censorship and book selection, and preparation of English teachers all need to be discussed in the public forum as well as in professional circles if the English curriculum in every American classroom is to be changed effectively.

Second, the profession must find ways to evaluate programs as they are developed in order to guide those who plan the English curriculum in the schools. Although an English ERIC would certainly help every school to build an English program based on the best research in the discipline, professional journals and meetings and constant interchange among scholars, teachers, and curriculum builders will become even more important in the years immediately ahead.

Third, the profession must encourage the Office of Education to maintain a vigorous program of curriculum development and experimentation in English. Investigation into the nature of the curriculum is never finished. Continued federal support for Study Centers and Demonstration Centers will help insure that the teacher in the 1970's is teaching an English which has been carefully developed by scholars and teachers working together, one that has been properly tested in pilot systems by experienced classroom teachers and widely discussed and examined. An expanded NDEA English Institute Program will help guarantee that thousands of teachers at all levels become familiar with the new English. Curriculum change in English, which will be so apparent in the next ten years, should be a continuing part of American education.

"If there is a 'new English,' it is to be found by reexamining and reinterpreting the child's experiences in language rather than by introducing new content, as has been characteristic of curriculum change in certain other school subjects, notably mathematics, science, and geography."

The Dartmouth Seminar

ALBERT H. MARCKWARDT

DURING four weeks in late August and early September of 1966, a group of about 50 scholars and specialists in teaching English assembled on the campus of Dartmouth College in Hanover, New Hampshire. Of this group, 27 were from the United States, twenty were from the United Kingdom, and one was from Canada. Several other scholars were on the campus for part of the seminar period. They were concerned with the entire range of the teaching of English, although school programs received much more attention than those of the college and university. The group met under the auspices of the Modern Language Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, both American organizations, and the relatively young National Association for the Teaching of English, a British organization.

The Anglo-American Conference on the Teaching of English —or the Dartmouth Seminar, as it came to be called—was held because representatives of the three sponsoring organizations, aware that English as a school subject faced a series of critical problems, in both the United States and the United Kingdom, were convinced that an international exchange of experience and opinion would be helpful in arriving at solutions and lines of international collaboration. Their convictions on this point

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were sufficiently strong and their arguments sufficiently persuasive to gain financial support of the Carnegie Corporation.

Certain aspects of the organization and operation of the conference will be dealt with later, but it must be realized that the very fact that the conference was held is significant in itself. The occasions on which we American educators have attempted to stimulate our thinking or assess our premises through the device of cross-cultural or international discussions have been rare. We meet often enough in international gatherings, to be sure, but these rarely succeed in shaking us out of our parochialism. To this day comparative education is not a highly developed discipline in this country, partly because we have not been able to read many of the important source materials in the languages in which they were written.

Not an Isolated Event

At the same time the Dartmouth Seminar must not be thought of as an isolated event or instance but rather as the most recent in a series of extended discussions on the scope and purpose of English as a school subject. They go all the way back to the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies, convened in 1892—or rather to its subcommittee on English—and to the Committee of Fifteen on Elementary Education, which followed closely (1893-95) on the heels of its predecessor. True enough, these earlier groups limited their attention to the national scene, but the first of them in particular enjoyed a fruitful cooperation between representatives from different academic settings.

Although it has been remarked that the task forces in the development of educational thought and practice in this country from 1890 on were committees, commissions, and conferences, I shall mention only one other collective effort, the Conference on Basic Issues in the Teaching of English, held in 1958. This attempted to formulate, through broad participation from all levels of education and subdivisions of the field of English, the most pertinent problems facing the profession in carrying out its educational function. It took few stands and offered few solutions, hoping rather to stimulate productive thought, practice, and research by posing issues as precisely as possible. It did serve a positive value in creating a friendly working atmosphere in which representatives of elementary, secondary, and higher education could state their points of view and defend their values and objectives. It succeeded in bringing together sectors of the profession which had drifted apart and become estranged.

Viewed in this context, the Dartmouth Seminar appears as an extension and culmination of earlier attempts at a cooperative solution of the complex questions posed by English as a school subject. The geographical spread is wider, but the vertical roots go deep into our educational history. It is not possible, however, to consider the Dartmouth Seminar the end of this process. English teaching is an important educational function in every English-speaking country, whether it be Australia or Ireland. There will always be certain problems indigenous to each country just as there will always be a number of elements in common. We may confidently look forward to an extension of the international dialogue.

Interesting though the deliberations of the conference were, they will be reported elsewhere and are indeed reflected in some of the foregoing articles. For the present purpose it is more important, perhaps, to indicate something of the way in which they emerged. The approximately equal numbers from England and the United States have already been cited; so also has the concern for the entire curriculum, both as to range and type of subject matter. Any activity not directly represented by one or another of the participants had a hearing through the consultants who were invited to join the group for periods shorter than the entire four weeks of the seminar.

Complex Organization Required

To get more than 50 persons of varied background and experience harnessed into a cooperative working effort dealing with a wide range of problems called for a quite complex organization. Certain major issues had been identified in advance of the conference; participants had been asked to prepare working papers on them, also in advance. Each paper was discussed at an early plenary session and then referred for further consideration to a working party composed half of British and half of American members. Moreover, the discussion at the plenary session was always initiated by an American if the author of the paper had been British, and vice versa. We also met in small study groups to consider a number of very specific problems, and here too the makeup of the groups was carefully controlled as to nationality and school level represented by the participants. Our purpose was not so much to secure mathematically precise representation as to bring to bear upon each topic the widest possible range of experience and attitude.

Beyond this, anyone could nominate himself to conduct a meeting, open or closed, on any topic germane to our overall purpose; surprisingly, people came in respectable numbers to listen. Participants were equally free to express their views in writing. In order that discussions would get down to earth instead of remaining abstract, the entire conference examined and evaluated examples of student writing and split up into groups for the analysis of poems.

There were times during the seminar when we wondered if anything in the way of a general consensus might emerge. Issues were often sharply drawn, and it was not easy to isolate areas of common agreement as a starting point for broader reconciliation of views. Despite all this, the last week and especially the final day witnessed a rare outburst of unanimity. Eleven points of agreement did get written into the record, and although they are not startling, they are fundamentally sound. They call for determined action to review and reform the teaching of English in schools in America and the United Kingdom with respect to the following points:

1. The centrality of the pupil's exploring, extending, and shaping experiences in the English classrom.
2. The urgency of developing classroom approaches stressing the vital, creative, dramatic involvement of children and young people in language experiences.
3. The importance of directing more attention to speaking and listening experiences for all pupils at all levels, particularly those experiences which involve vigorous interaction among children.
4. The wisdom of providing young people at all levels with significant opportunities for the creative uses of language: creative dramatics, imaginative writing, improvisation, role playing, and similar activities.
5. The significance of rich literary experiences in the educative process and the importance of teachers of English restudying

particular selections to determine their appropriateness for reading at different levels.

6. The need to overcome the restrictiveness of rigid patterns of "grouping" or "streaming" which limit the linguistic environment in which boys and girls learn English and which tend to inhibit language development.
7. The need to negate the limiting, often stultifying, impact of examination patterns which direct attention of both teachers and pupils to aspects of English which are at best superficial and often misleading.
8. The compelling urgency of improving the conditions under which English is taught in the schools: the need for more books and libraries, for better equipment, for reasonable class size, for a classroom environment which will make good teaching possible.
9. The importance of teachers of English at all levels informing themselves about the results of pertinent scholarship and research so that their classroom approaches may be guided accordingly.
10. The need for radical reform in programs of teacher education, both preservice and in-service.
11. The importance of educating the public on what is meant by good English and what is meant by good English teaching.

All of this has been elaborated in two books now in manuscript form, one for the general public written by Dr. Herbert J. Muller, Distinguished Service Professor of English and Politics at Indiana University; the other, addressed to the profession, by John Dixon, Senior Lecturer at the Bretton Hall College of Education at Wakefield in Yorkshire, England. Until the public and profession have reacted to them, it would be premature to estimate the total impact of the conference.

Language Experiences the Key

It is important to recognize that if there is a "new English," it is to be found by reexamining and reinterpreting the child's experiences in language rather than by introducing new content, as has been characteristic of curriculum change in certain other school subjects, notably mathematics, science, and geography. True enough, some of our approaches to grammar have changed over the years, but the object of the study is still the English language. The literary anthology may differ from what it was fifty years ago—Auden instead of Tennyson, Salinger rather than Dickens—but the realization of the literary experience is still the end we seek.

Even though the final word remains to be said, certain strong points of agreement stand out; and agreement in a group so diverse and determined as this is in itself notable. First of all, there was evident a preference for power rather than knowledge, for experience rather than information, for engagement rather than criticism. There was, in addition, a strong sense of language as the medium of engagement with reality, as a means of experiencing as well as expressing. Again, this runs far deeper than the mere "appreciation" of *belles lettres* or the ability to write and speak without violating current canons of correctness. The unanimity of opposition to streaming or tracking and to current practices in testing arose, at least in part, from an awareness that our educational systems also function as instruments of policy.

This summarizes as well as one can for the present the results of the international dialogue in the Dartmouth Seminar. Unquestionably there will remain many problems peculiar to the country in which they arise. Nevertheless, an awareness of the similarity of issues, irrespective of the different social complexes which produce them, and the impact of thinking and discussion on a broader scale than seen before lent to this collaborative experience a stimulus and excitement new to all of the participants.

As one of the members of the group recently commented, "I became convinced that American efforts toward coherence, articulation, and regularizing the English curriculum are understandable enough, but that they testify to our desires rather than to the nature of our discipline. Perhaps we need to recognize that the bases for curriculum arrangement are plural and then work for sound paradigms for each of the elements in this "plurality."

"While many changes in English are made each year, quite a number of them are mainly a return to former good practices which fell into disuse."

Innovation and Renovation in English Teaching

Frank E. Ross

The boy who returned from absence to report he had snew in his blood prompted his principal to ask, "What's snew?" to which the lad replied, "Nothing much. What's new with you?" His principal had fallen for a gag old enough to have been told by Horace Mann to the Boston headmasters. However, for anyone today who has not heard it, it is deserving of the Sam Levinson Award. What is new, as always, depends upon how familiar one is with what is old.

Some people believe that an innovation is something new, recognizing *nova* in it. That has come to be a commonsense meaning for the word, but its original meaning and the only one acceptable to the purists is "change." A fine point worth noting is that not every innovation in the teaching of English is strictly new; many are only changes. As a woman may add or subtract a collar here or a belt there to give the appearance of being in clothes always new, she is not fooled and neither is the husband who pays the bills. In education, too, alterations are cheaper than complete changes; as a result, the former are more frequent and often pass for the latter. Recognizing the difference between the two remains a serious responsibility for all administrators.

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Many fine teachers stay abreast of current research in English and change what they can of their teaching independently of the curriculum of their school system. Many good principals, supervisors, and curriculum consultants pull their teachers screaming and kicking into a modern approach to the myriad facets of teaching English. Whether the teacher leads the system or the system sets the pace for the teacher, there is the ever present danger that both groups, in an effort to stay *au courant,* will grasp at unsound programs or programs already tested and discarded.

How can one know which programs are valid and which are meretricious? Answers to three simple questions will serve as guides:

1. *Is the proposed innovation seminal?* (Many proposals do not go to the root of the problem but merely prune and graft; for example, a proposal to improve reading skills that depends solely upon a change in texts.)

2. *Is it a full program or is it only an idea?* (Some proposals are undeveloped thoughts and in no way provide a well-rounded program; for example, a proposal to put newspapers in the classroom to get students "hooked" on reading as a panacea to reading, writing, and discipline problems.)

3. *What research or other verification supports the idea?* (Some highly touted programs have had very limited testing and have enjoyed the benefits of the Hawthorne effect; for example, success in using an innovation with 22 students is not justification enough for its school-wide adoption.)

There are ambitious promoters in education, as in other pursuits, who beat the drums and shout ovations for programs they hope will become "in." Too many are only old tobaccos with new filters being successfully huckstered. Really new developments in English which promise sweeping changes can be counted on one hand.

Increasing numbers of teachers (with publishers only one step behind them) are coming to realize that "English" is first and basically "language," with both a skill and a content to be mastered. Language in some new curricula is even being made the focus of English, supplanting literature in some schools and composition in others as the central point.

In this scientific age when, it is said, 90 percent of the scientists of record are alive today, it is only natural that language teaching would fall under the scrutiny of scientists. With remarkable dispassion, linguistic scientists have shown that the eighteenth century (prescientific) approach to the English language was fallacious, yet teachers of English and authors of textbooks have perpetuated the original errors. English is not at all like Latin in structure, and it is a mistake to apply Latin rules to it. While Latin depends upon inflection (word endings) to communicate ideas, English, a Germanic language, depends primarily upon word order.

Furthermore, linguistic scientists stress the fact that children come to school with a language already quite well under control. The child, sometimes as early as three or four years old, may say "I seed it," which reveals uncanny ability to recognize that most past tenses in English end in "-ed." There is much established language skill to build on for the teacher who observes closely. Secondary school teachers, likewise, need to begin their programs not as though they were offering a foreign language, such as algebra, but instead by starting with students' current usage and understanding of the language.

The history of the language, which is filled with genuinely interesting and colorful lore, helps a student understand how his language came to its present state and helps him to reason that it will not remain in that state long—that a living language changes, as do all living things.

The linguistic scientists, more maligned than read, do *not* say "Throw out grammar." They do say "Replace the Latin grammar with an American English grammar." Likewise, they do not say "Anything goes"; they say "Everything counts." This approach to language teaching through the ear and mouth as well as the eye is reasonable and long overdue.

• • •

The quest for a literature program in secondary schools to guarantee lifetime readers of self-chosen books plods on, but at last appears to be heading the right way. It was only 13 years ago that the *Education Index* began to list paperback books, mainly for the college trade, because almost no school system at that time used them. Some states still forbid their use in public schools. Nevertheless, the movement away from the three-pound anthology continues relentlessly and with good reason.

At no time in the high school student's future life will he be confronted with an 8-inch by 10-inch book, lavishly illustrated on quality paper, filled to brimming with bits and pieces of classic or modern literature. The experience he has with such a book, often printed in double columns, in no way prepares him for his future reading habits. Paperbacks, on the other hand, are readily available in drug stores, department stores, supermarkets, and now gas stations, to say nothing of the bookstores. The habits he forms with these light, colorful, inexpensive books are more surely lifetime habits.

The Rutgers Plan of 1959 put 1,000 to 2,000 paperbacks into selected schoolrooms in Detroit and Chicago to make books fingertip-accessible, a part of the furniture, a part of the atmosphere. Furthermore, it provided for students to "read on company time," during the English class. Both cities have continued the program to this day. The National Study of High School English Programs, directed by James R. Squire, urges that each English classroom contain a minimum of 500 books, the majority of them paperbacks.

While in-depth analysis of literature is not to be ignored, the first necessity is to make an eager pleasure reader of Johnny. Paperback editions of the classics now are available both in trade titles, for wide-swinging, individualized reading, and in textbook format, arranged by themes or by types of literature.

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The inexorable movement to free the English teacher of perimeter duties began when a janitor was hired; no longer did the teacher clean the oil lamps and sweep the floor or lay the fire. Advancement from this point has been slow but steady. It has had considerable encouragement from the lay reader movement. While other forces are at work to replace all teachers in the study hall, lunchroom, and hallway, the lay reader attempts to relieve pressure on the English teacher at the point of greatest concentration—marking and grading compositions.

Without doubt, no other teacher in any school carries home such a load of work when he is doing a successful job. If he

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assigns a theme a week to his 150 students, it will take him ten minutes to analyze and comment on each paper. That would be 25 hours of homework for that activity alone, not to mention the lesson plans, the building and marking of tests, etc. This is more than an inhuman load, it is an impossible one; it accounts considerably for students' failures to know and handle their language effectively.

The lay reader picks up a pack of papers with a covering sheet, explaining the background for the assignment and the teacher's expectations. Programs vary from system to system, but usually the reader handles 20 assignments out of the year's 40 in each class. The teacher, then, is handling all that he normally could have anyway, while retaining control over the additional writing. In many systems the reader is a qualified volunteer. In Detroit, where readers are paid 25 cents per paper, the program costs $30,000 to relieve those 200 teachers who use it. If the money were spent to hire additional teachers (were they available) it would not relieve class load by even one student.

No hamlet is too small to contain a few college-educated people who want to be of service to the schools, people who can pass a rigorous examination of English skills and can work compatibly with the English teachers toward a common goal.

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Programed instruction is being employed to far greater extent in industry and the armed services than it is in the public schools, and much more in mathematics, science, and social studies than in English. The Skinner concept is that a student can learn more efficiently if material is broken down into small steps, if he is required to respond actively and constantly, and if he is given immediate confirmation in his progress. Such English programs to date, in spelling, vocabulary, traditional grammar, linguistic grammar, and even in understanding poetry, are not as widely used as they warrant.

To improve programed instruction and broaden its use, small programs could be developed for remedial work in the numerous trouble spots the average student collides with at some time (e.g., a 30-page program for each of the six major spelling rules, for each of the twelve types of punctuation, or for problems in agreement of subject and predicate).

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Teachers have still to realize the potential of programed texts in English.

While many changes in English are made each year, quite a number of them are mainly a return to former good practices which fell into disuse. To illustrate, the universities are reviving courses in rhetoric, which then sift down to the high schools. Likewise, leaders in English curriculum are stressing the depth study of literature, a line-by-line analysis, rediscovered by the New Criticism of post-World War II. Shades of Horace Mann! Both approaches to teaching English are echoes of a long-gone but properly respected past.

Paperbacks, lay readers, programed instruction, and linguistics, all at least ten years old, are beginning to crest in education now. *That* is what's snew!

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References on English in Secondary Schools

James R. Squire

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(continued on page 120)

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MICHAEL CHIAPPETTA, professor of education and chairman, Department of International and Comparative Education, Indiana University, in **contemporary educational issues.**

B. MELVIN COLE, assistant superintendent of instructional and personnel services, Baltimore County, Towson, Maryland, in **leadership skills.** (Recently appointed coordinator of educational affairs for the State of Maryland serving on the Governor's personal staff.)

ELIZABETH M. EASTMAN, member of the New York State Bar and associate attorney, Division of Law, New York State Education Department, in **school law.**

ROBERT W. EAVES, executive secretary, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Washington, D.C. in **elementary school administration.**

GERTRUDE E. LEWIS, formerly curriculum specialist, U.S. Office of Education, in **elementary school curriculum.**

JOHN T. LOVELL, professor of educational administration, School of Education, Auburn University, Auburn, Alabama, in **improvement of instruction.**

DELMAS F. MILLER, chairman, Department of Secondary Education, and director, University High School, West Virginia University in **secondary school administration.**

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An Editor's Catechism

Probably some readers and surely many unpublished and disappointed authors have, during the last publishing year, wondered by what standards, if any, the BULLETIN's editor has been making his decisions. He thinks he has some standards, and defensible ones too. He is disinclined, however, to specify them in print after only one year's internship.

But he spotted some good advice offered by Ben Brodinsky, editor-in-chief of Crofts Educational Services, in a talk he gave to a group of educational editors at the NCTE convention last fall. In the course of discussing "Publishing a Professional Journal in Today's World," he noted some of the qualities he believes an effective editor possesses. We think it probable that his characterization can be as helpful to reader as to editor, so we quote it here:

"My notion of an editor is clear: I preach that an editor should be an individual with spleen. Now, spleen is an old-fashioned word. It used to mean the seat of emotion and passion. It may also mean anger. An editor should be endowed with enough spleen to care, to be concerned, to become aroused. His hackles should rise against the phonies in the profession—the stuffed shirts—the superficial thinkers who want to rush into print with an account of a research study which confirms what two other research studies had already confirmed twice before. (The essential finding of each prior study was 'Further research is needed. . . .')

"But I hasten to add that an editor should be a man or woman of courtesy—courteous to his readers. An editor is courteous to his readers when he provides them with articles which have significance; which have at least one fresh idea; and when the words themselves are simple, direct, and unpretentious.

"An editor is courteous to his reader when he respects the reader's limitation of time—and does not burden him with articles which have little to say and take a lot of words to say it.

"On the other hand, we are discourteous to our reader when we ask him to read material which is dull and tedious. We are discourteous to our reader when we allow authors to spin out statistical comparisons ad nauseum, and when we fail to insist

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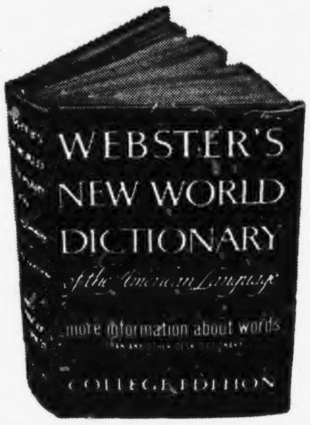
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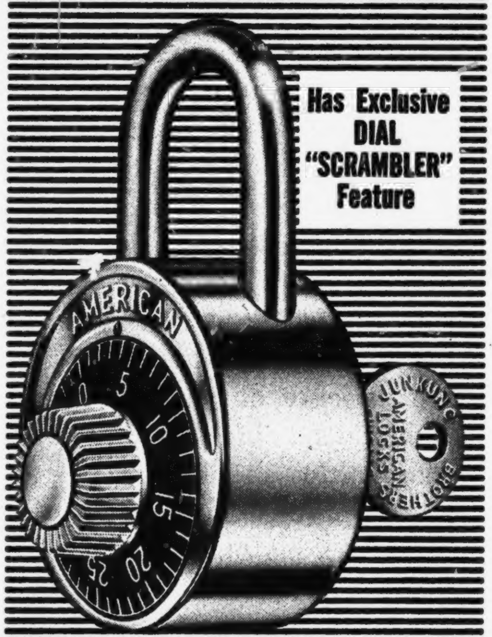
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that authors must point out the meanings, the ideas or the concepts behind the details.

"I preach that an editor should be an individual of courage. Courage—Who among us has the courage to fix a quizzical eye on such popular folk heroes in education as Conant, Bruner, Skinner, the Commission on English, or Bel Kaufman with her snippety book called 'Up the Down Staircase'?

"Have we the courage to tell a most distinguished authority that his article is really an exercise in hair-splitting and that he would do better if he chose another topic?

"Have we the courage *not* to jump on the bandwagon which seems to be perennially racing through the avenues of education?

"And have you the courage to test the readability of your publication to find out how easy or difficult it is for the reader? If you haven't, I suggest you go through this exercise. It doesn't matter which formula you use—whether you're applying the Fog Index or some other test. . . . It could be a sobering, humiliating experience or possibly even a heartening experience. But you should be able to accept the findings with courage and then do something about them.

"Yes, spleen, courtesy, and courage are part of your equipment for carrying on your work. . . . An educational editor must protect the reader from the educational bureaucrat and his shop talk. He must take responsibility for assuring clear and simple language. He must be polite. And he must be firm."

* * *

References on Linguistics

Many English teachers would like to take advantage of scholarly developments in linguistics in redesigning their instruction but hesitate to do so because of the limited development of their own scholarship in this area. A bibliography seldom is a miracle-maker, but one dealing with linguistics compiled by a committee of the Minnesota Council of Teachers of English can be a substantial aid to teachers who know but little but are eager to learn more.

The men and women who selected and annotated the bibliography were all English teachers who had started out with little

(continued on page 126)

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or no formal training in linguistics. The materials included, therefore, have been checked out for value through quite practical application. And every effort was made to limit the collection to items which teachers can obtain with little or no difficulty.

"Linguistic Bibliography for the Teacher of English," a 48-page pamphlet, is available from Dr. Anna L. Stensland, the executive secretary of MCTE, 412 Humanities Building, University of Minnesota, Duluth, Minnesota 55812. It costs 75 cents per copy.

* * *

Old Word Game Revised

In the December 1966 BULLETIN, MacDonald examined teaching as a special kind of communications game (Gamesmanship in the Classroom). Frymier's essay in the same issue (Strategies to Reinforce Learning) looked at life in the classroom from much the same angle. This is by way of introducing a recently published major research report on the same general subject.

The Language of the Classroom presents the data and conclusions gathered in a three-year study of the linguistic behavior of 15 teachers and 345 of their students. Because this is a research report the reader must be prepared to cope with tables, with discussions of research procedures and instruments, and with some common words that have been given somewhat specialized meanings. (For example, it is not usual to describe much of a teacher's verbal activity as "soliciting.") But the authors would rank well up on Brodinsky's scale for their efforts to keep their language and their content manageable.

This is not a how-to-do-it book in any apparent sense. And the conduct of 15 teachers as they and their students worked their ways through a unit in economics may not seem to be especially exciting subject matter. Actually, however, careful study of the book can be rewarding to any teacher, principal, or supervisor—and an occasional mature student, too—for it presents a method of analyzing a major element in classroom practice that, with an adaptation here and there, can be used by anyone who believes the inherent artfulness of teaching will be helped rather than hindered by careful description.

(continued on page 128)

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In summarizing their observations, the authors present five general rules that appear to govern the play of teacher and student. One of these sets the classroom game off as different in at least one respect from most "real life" play:

> In gauging wins and losses, players should keep in mind that this is not a game in which one player, such as the teacher, wins, while another player, such as one of the pupils, loses. Rather, there are relative degrees of winning and losing, and the teacher's winnings are a function of the pupil's performances. This is a peculiar, but important, characteristic of this game. While the teacher undeniably has the greater power and freedom in the course of play, he is ultimately dependent on his pupils for the degree of success he achieves in playing the game.

The Language of the Classroom by Arno Bellack, Herbert Kliebard, Ronald Hyman, and Frank Smith, Jr., is based on research supported by a grant from the Cooperative Research Program, USOE. It is published by Teachers College Press, Columbia University, and lists at $4.75 a copy.

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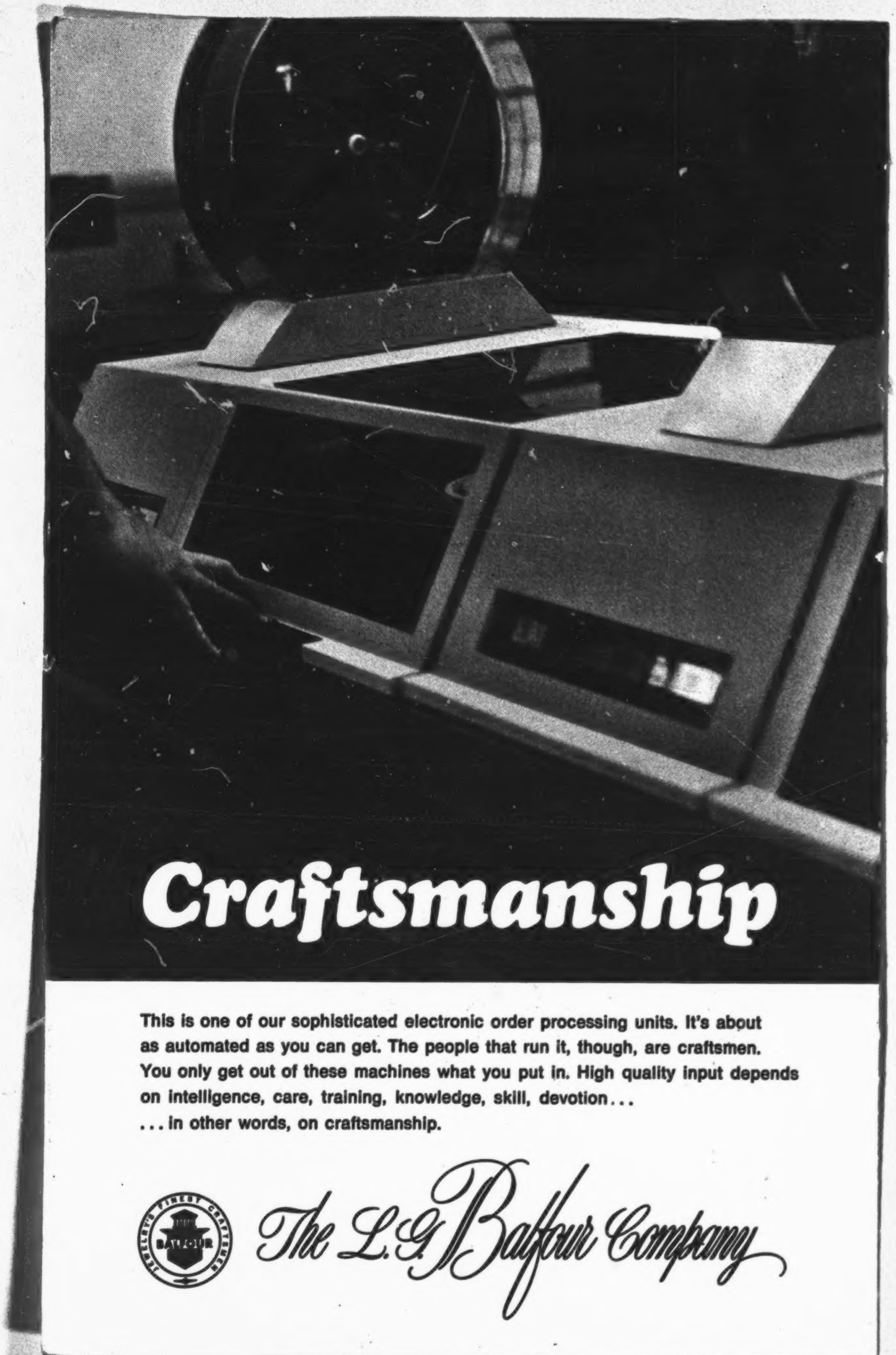

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